

SOCIAL EDUCATION

OFFICIAL JOURNAL, NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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Freedom of Thought in American Life

Richard B. Kennan

TO THE average person, the concept that thought can be anything other than free is probably startling at the very least. The first idea to come to mind on this score is that of the prisoner undergoing torture who stated, "You may cut out my tongue so I cannot speak. You may cut off my hands so that I cannot write. But you cannot stop me thinking my own thoughts unless you destroy me utterly."

Probably thought cannot be completely controlled even in the subconscious stage. On the other hand, there are certainly numerous and effective inhibiting devices and practices and forces, natural and developed by human initiative, that tend to limit real freedom of thought.

THOUGHT CONTROL BY SURVEILLANCE

One of the oldest and most sinister systems of thought control has been through the system of spying. In the totalitarian countries neighbors have been rewarded for reporting the comments of their neighbors, workmen have been commended for reporting the offhand statements of their supervisors; and children have been encouraged to report the intimate conversations of their parents. The result has been the development of a climate of fear and suspicion that has made people afraid to think unorthodox thoughts for fear that they might someday utter them in the presence of one of the ever present spies.

The phenomenon of a spy system within a community is not entirely unknown in our American towns and cities. The first encounter that I had with it was twenty years ago when I

was a superintendent of schools in a consolidated district in an eastern town. I stepped into the corridor one day and found a man berating a teacher because she had read a Bible story to the children instead of reading certain verses from the Bible as directed by the law of that state. I took the man into my office and told him that it was not his business to correct the teacher and that he should have reported any dereliction to me or to the principal. (Probably the youngsters understood the Bible stories better than they would have the Bible itself, but as a matter of fact, in that case the teacher was violating the law.)

The man then told me that he would follow my request, but that he would hold me personally responsible for any failure of a teacher on that particular point from that time on, and he went on to say that he would know because he was the Grand Titan of the Ku Klux Klan of that area and he had a spy in every classroom of the state who would report to the Klan. In those days it didn't worry me particularly, for I felt that if the schools would continue to strive to serve the community to the best of their ability, there would be so little for the spies to report that it would be of no significance and would cause little trouble.

Today, however, the emotional climate of large segments of our population is such that the threat of a spy system is a very strong deterrent of thought and expression in literally hundreds of classrooms across this country.

This fall I received a long report from a southwestern city where a radio commentator was on the air on a local station for two hours every night. One of his principal projects was the development of a spy system in the local schools. He urged the parents and citizens to create an organization in which the members would act anonymously and "under cover." He urged the citizens to see that there were secret agents in every classroom who would listen to everything the teacher said and review all written materials

This is a slightly condensed version of a talk the author gave at a general session of the annual convention of the National Council for the Social Studies in Buffalo on Thanksgiving evening. Dr. Kennan is executive secretary of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education of the National Education Association.

in an effort to find something that might be considered disloyal.

Can you imagine what it would be like to be teaching in a large community, knowing that there was a secret organization that was not at all interested in the constructive things that you were trying to achieve and in the help that you were endeavoring to give the students in your classrooms, but only in trying to find some inadvertent word, phrase, or sentence that they could pounce upon and use to cause you discomfort or even serious damage? A tragic factor in this particular case was that this commentator allegedly had the support of one or more self-proclaimed patriotic organizations.

I am happy to report that this man no longer is on the air, and it is to be hoped that no other station will stoop to giving him opportunity to advance his program to stultify freedom in the classrooms.

It seems to me that this is one of the areas where the Communists have had their greatest success in the United States. Each time that a new element of divisiveness, fear, and suspicion develops within our American communities, it weakens our national strength and unity and makes us an easier prey to the Communists and all others who fear or hate freedom.

So far, there have been no revealed incidents where children have been encouraged to spy on their parents in this country. On the other hand, according to law, teachers stand in loco parentis in their relationships to their pupils, and the encouragement of spying in such cases is only one step less damnable than that of intra-family spying.

There are loud voices that deny the existence of fear and suspicion as a result of spying in our communities today. However, I have talked with judges, ministers, priests, presidents of social and fraternal organizations, labor leaders, and many other representative citizens and it is my considered conclusion that this suspicion does not exist in the schools alone. The guilt by association procedure has been extended to include informal expressions of sympathy concerning individuals who have suffered loss of prestige or position without clear proof of guilt.

It is not an unusual experience to meet with a foreign visitor and discover how baffled he is to come to the land of boasted freedom and find so much fear of free expression in our land. I have been embarrassed by such individuals on more occasions than I care to recall: embarrassed because of the numbers of individuals who have

made comments to me concerning their attitude about the current state of affairs in our country and who qualified it by saying, "I'll say this to you, but I wouldn't dare say it if another person were present." In my youth, in my native New England, a person who made such a statement would have been considered a coward.

This thought control through the spreading of fear and suspicion has spread like a miasma, hardly noticeable at first, but steadily increasing in noxiousness until we suddenly realize that we ourselves are being choked by it. Much of it could be cleared away overnight by real leadership, courage, and statesmanship on the part of people in high as well as low office in this country. It received its greatest encouragement when prominent individuals stated that they did not like the methods being employed in seeking to discover subversion, but they did approve of the objectives. A nation that accepts the belief that "the end justifies the means" has gone a long way down the road that leads away from freedom.

To say that a man is guilty unless he can prove himself innocent; to say that a man is disloyal unless he can prove that he hates all Russians and has always done so; to say that a man is a suspicious character unless he is willing to lay bare to the light of public inquiry his most secret and intimate thoughts and actions; to say these things is to deny the very foundations of the American way of life. The person who so forgets his heritage as to engage in such talk deserves, in my opinion, the same contempt that we hold for the boxer who hides a horseshoe in his glove or the football player who gouges the eye of the man about to tackle him.

As long as the rules of the game that protect fair play and justice and good sportsmanship are laid aside, we are bound to have fear and restriction of thought. And the poison will spread until all Americans worthy of the name rise up in united protest against those who have violated some of our most cherished American principles, traditions, and freedoms.

Let no one attempt to find in my words any condemnation of a healthy interest on the part of parents and the public in general in the work of the schools or in the activities of any other public service agency. Citizens have the right and the duty to be concerned with overt disloyal actions of their colleagues or neighbors. If the public is to support the schools, it has a right to be assured of the integrity and loyalty of its teachers. So, too, each American community should be alert to the totalitarian threats that

menace us. I am decrying here only those individuals and groups who, for personal or political purposes, have, in the name of anti-Communism, foisted upon us the very techniques and procedures that we despise in the dictator powers.

THOUGHT CONTROL BY SEMANTICS

One of the most diabolically clever ways of controlling thoughts is through the changing of the meanings of words. Those who are sowing discord in our country have made startling progress in developing confusion concerning word meanings.

An example of this recently occurred in an elementary school in one of the western states. According to the newspaper reports, the parents of children in that school are protesting because the principal has been teaching her pupils a new version of the American's Creed from which the word "democracy" has been eliminated. The newspaper states that she told a parent that she changed it "because Russia has made a 'dirty word' of democracy."

You can imagine how such a statement makes the hackles rise on the back of a New England Yankee who knows that probably the purest form of democracy of modern times exists in the new England town meetings. If such meetings be "dirty," then all I can say is that we need a lot more good, clean dirt. However, it is at the least a depressing thought to find such a fear of a word in a creed that was accepted by the House of Representatives of the United States Congress on behalf of the American people on April 3, 1918! (I wonder how the lady gets around the fact that the Communists like her word preference, "republic," so much better that they have used it as part of the name of the U.S.S.R.?)

The control of thought by semantic antics could be illustrated ad nauseam. One of the toughest to deal with, and yet one of very real importance today, is the clarification of the difference between Russian so-called Communism, theoretical Communism, Socialism, and Collectivism. There are people today who are glibly running all of these terms together in a too frequently successful effort to obfuscate issues. Certainly there is overlapping in the meaning of the terms, but there are important distinctions between them, and we do damage to our American cause when we allow the terms to be misused, particularly when they are intentionally misused for deceptive purposes.

An example in point was a man whom I heard talking recently who said that as far as he was

concerned, Socialism and Communism were the same thing and that he was opposed to the government's communistic program. What became clear in this case was that he was opposed to TVA, social security, farm subsidies, and other programs. He refused to comment on whether or not he was also opposed to the government's participation in the building of roads, in the conduct of the Post Office, and in making free schools available to the children of this country. I am not arguing at this point as to whether or not the government should be involved in some of the programs that I have mentioned, but I am convinced that all reasonable people feel that such issues should be discussed on their merits and not attacked by vague, generalized, and ominous insinuations.

The clearest example of the danger of semantic confusion to clarity and freedom of thought is perhaps the experience of a reporter of the *Capitol Times* of Madison, Wisconsin. A few months ago this gentleman asked a number of the individuals in the business section of Madison to answer the question, "What is a Communist?" The replies indicated only one clearly unanimous idea, and that was that everyone was against Communism just as they were against sin. Many freely admitted that they didn't really know what they were against. A farmer said, "I don't know what they are, to come down to it. You hear a lot about them all the time, though." A housewife put it this way, "I don't know much about it. I really don't know what a Communist is. I think they should throw them out of the White House."

Some of the answers would be extremely amusing if they did not indicate such tragic ignorance of what it is that we as a nation are facing today. What more could anyone who wished to disorganize and destroy our country hope for than to find such complete confusion and misunderstanding concerning our most threatening foe?

THOUGHT CONTROL THROUGH MASS MEDIA OF COMMUNICATION

Complete freedom of thought has been restricted for many years through the control of the mass media of communication: the press, radio, television. Nevertheless, America has been fortunate in the number of editors and commentators who have been relatively free to attempt to give unbiased reports of the events of the day. Certainly there have been few instances so far where a man has lost his channel of communication because he presented controversial points of

view. There are, however, some recent glaring examples where editors and commentators have been attacked because their viewpoint did not agree with that of certain influential individuals.

There are newspapers and radio stations as well as television stations that are understood to limit their staff to individuals with points of view acceptable to the owners of the papers or stations. However, up to the present time the American public has free access to other newspapers and other wave lengths or stations by choosing where he will spend his nickel or turn his dial. The dangerous areas are where there is only one newspaper or one radio station or one television channel available. In such areas, the public is in danger of getting only a slanted presentation of events and policies. The efforts to control thought by these means have been vigorous, but so far, it seems to me, relatively unsuccessful.

CONTROL OF THOUGHT THROUGH CONTROL OF OTHER PUBLIC VOICES

The efforts of those who intentionally or inadvertently would confuse and restrict our freedom of thought have been somewhat more successful with the other major voices that affect our mental horizons than has been true of the mass media of communication. One effort has apparently been directed at the pulpit, which has long been a source of guidance and clarity and courage in American life.

Even before the sensation-seeking charge was made against the Protestant clergy of this country, I sat in meetings of a number of religious denominations and heard the leaders tell of the unwillingness of their congregations to face up to any controversial issue and their own fear of reprisal if they attempted to speak the truth as they saw it. What a far cry from the courageous mandate of the Christian Saviour: "Ye shall seek the truth and the truth shall make you free."

Another device to restrain freedom of thought has been the attempts to purge the libraries of all controversial or unpopular materials. Sometimes the effort has been only to mark the books in such a way as to make it embarrassing for anyone to remove them for study. In other cases, it has been a matter of actually destroying the books. Fortunately, the leadership of librarians and library boards, supported by the intelligent portions of the community, has prevailed over the will of those who are afraid to submit opinions with which they disagree to the intelligence of their fellow citizens.

Closely allied with the efforts to restrict thought by the censorship of library books, have been the efforts to censor textbooks. Certainly there should be no question as to the right of any citizen to review any book used in the schools, but there should be the strongest possible objection to efforts to censor books on the basis of reviews presented by radically biased, inaccurate, and dishonest agencies. Some of the most vigorous attacks against the textbooks seem to be rapidly losing their effectiveness because of the fact that the attackers have resorted to tactics of deception and distortion that reasonable citizens have rejected when they have read the books themselves.

There have been some successful efforts to limit understanding through purging textbooks, however. A rather amusing incident is reported to have occurred in one southern state when a school board decided to give up a textbook on American government because it had been attacked as subversive, but the board thought it would be all right to sell the textbooks to a school board in another state. Apparently, the members of this board thought that what would be subversive for the children in their state would not be at all harmful to the children in another state.

A more discouraging situation occurred in Texas where, it is reported, a board of education refused to accept the unanimous choice of the teachers of American government in the high schools of the city because the particular textbook the teachers had chosen included two paragraphs, each of which described, without either approving or opposing, an activity of the federal government: the federal school lunch program and Unesco. The most disturbing feature of this case, however, was the fact that the teachers were left with only one collection of study materials for the government course. This collection consisted of 35 copies of a little propaganda pamphlet written by John T. Flynn. In it he attacked the National Council of Churches of Christ in America. The fact that an American school board considers it proper to prevent youngsters from learning about activities of the federal government and does not hesitate to inflict upon them propaganda statements attacking reputable American institutions is something to cause all free, courageous Americans to pause and think!

Since I have mentioned one Texas situation that has thrown up barriers against freedom of thought through denying access to information

concerning the activities of our national government, let me balance that with a word of praise for the State Board of Education of Texas. Press dispatches indicate that this state board has rejected a recommendation of its textbook committee to remove from any textbook on its approved list any mention of the Declaration of Human Rights which has been presented to the nations of the world by the United Nations for possible adoption. This action does not mean that the Texas State Board of Education endorses the Declaration of Human Rights; it simply means that this Board believes that high school students today should be permitted to study some of the proposals, now before the nations of the world, that will possibly effect the lives of these same young people.

The most frequent proposal of those who have attacked the library books and the textbooks has been to create state or national censorship boards. Certainly nothing could be more threatening to freedom of thought in this country than successful efforts on the part of public and private agencies to determine for all of their fellow citizens what they may learn from the library books, the textbooks, the motion pictures, the radio and television programs, the newspapers, the magazines, yes, even the paper-bound books in the drugstores and on the newsstands all over the country.

One other means of circumscribing American freedom of thought should be mentioned. That is the attempt to control members of faculties of schools and universities. There are influential people who would like to make departments or whole schools into mere disseminators of propaganda rather than institutions for carrying on the search for truth. So far, American educational institutions have a proud record of generally refusing such influence, but there are recurring and troubling reports of failure of re-employment, of resignations under pressure, and of bowing to official edict in order to maintain the means of supporting a family. The effectiveness and danger of such activity is readily apparent to any thoughtful person. Where institutions of learning have yielded to pressures to punish those who merely give consideration to unorthodox or unpopular ideas, it is not so much the schools themselves that have suffered therefrom as it is the segment of young America that has turned to such institutions hoping for proper preparation for leadership of our nation in the challenging days before us. Without this leadership, we are indeed undone.

CONTROL OF THOUGHT THROUGH DISPARAGING THE COMMON MAN

I have been deeply disturbed myself by what appears to me to be an effort to control the thinking and actions of our nation by disparaging and ridiculing the intellect of the common man. Our nation was established and preserved by common men—farmers, tradesmen, laborers, professional people. We have had renewed courage, and gained in stature from our adherence to the principle that ours is a "government of the people, by the people, for the people." The American citizen has had stature, pride, and self-confidence because he has been brought up to the belief that "all men are created equal." The public schools and even the universities of this country were established by common men who respected and believed in the value and importance of education for all citizens.

Yet there are voices that directly or indirectly disparage and dishearten the citizens of our nation today. They would have him believe that he is not so clever as the citizens of other ideologies and will be their dupe unless he stops thinking for himself and accepts only the thoughts and directives of those within our national boundaries who are seeking to control our nation. Even in the field of education, there have been voices raised by those who would like to be considered scholars who state that the citizens of our country are no longer able to determine what is good and proper for their youth to study. They belittle the average educator and school board member, and demand, as sort of super-intellectuals, the authority to dictate what you and I shall teach and what the youth of our nation shall be permitted to learn.

Inherent in all men is a feeling of insecurity and a hope for wise guidance from a superior being. What cleverer or more injurious device could be developed to control the thinking of a people than to succeed in destroying their confidence in their own thoughts, in their own ability to make wise choices, and to force them to become dependent upon those who would be their leaders but whose motives are not clearly for the public good?

ENCOURAGING SIGNS

I am sure that there are some of you who feel that I have approached this topic of freedom of thought in American life by the back door. I have spent most of my time discussing the circumscription of freedom. Yet I have done this because I believe it is only through the recog-

nition of such barriers that we are able to know how to proceed in order to extend our range of perception and thinking.

I believe that there is already stirring in the "grass roots" and even in high places in this country a revolt against those who, in the name of anti-Communism, have led us down what amount to anti-American avenues and byways. I have been heartened by the stirring words of men like Conant, Oxnam, Cousins, Reuther, and many other leaders who have courageously spoken out for freedom.

I was encouraged by your own Council's recent statement on essentials of freedom to learn and freedom to teach, a statement in which you state your "faith that when young people have freedom to learn from competent teachers who are free to teach, they will, as a group, make decisions that support the values associated with our democratic republic."

I was stirred by the words of President Dwight Eisenhower in his Proclamation for American Education Week when he said: "Our teachers are summoned to be patriots in the highest sense of the words; to teach the principles that bring freedom and justice to life; to make clear the enjoyment of liberties means acceptance of duty; and to impart the priceless knowledge that duty, in an age of peril, means sacrifice."

"Our whole citizenry is summoned to help the teachers in their great work; not only to provide them with the resources they need but also to guard with devoted vigilance the freedom of thought and discretion which inspire free men to teach all men how to be free."

Inspiring, too, was the magnificent statement signed by such outstanding citizens as Charles E. Wilson of General Electric, Harry E. Humphreys, Jr., of U. S. Rubber, Allen Sproul of the Federal Reserve Bank of New York, and many other citizens of the city of Scarsdale, New York.

This statement was prompted by a situation in which a group of people had attempted to control the library and textbooks of the schools of this city. It reads, in part: "We, a group of interested citizens, wish to state our position on the issues which have been raised by those who would ban books from the public schools because of the political leanings of their authors."

"We do not minimize the dangers of Communist and Fascist indoctrination, but we want to meet these dangers in the American way."

"We live in a democratic state. We are the inheritors of a tradition . . . based on a tolerance that has not feared to permit independent thought. . . ."

"Any sensible person would agree that there are risks in allowing young persons relatively free access to a wide range of reading material. . . . But we believe there are greater risks in any alternative procedure. . . ."

"The purpose of education in a free society is to develop intelligent citizens, loyal to their country and to pursuit of truth, believing in the endless possibilities for the betterment of mankind. A system of censorship of materials and ideas smacks of the methods used by Communist and Fascist states and defeats the very purpose of the Bill of Rights, as well as the purpose of education."

As the number of such statements of guiding principles and platforms for action increase, the hope for the extension of the boundaries of freedom of thought in American life becomes more certain.

There is an old saying that "In the multitude of the wise is the salvation of the world." So, too, the salvation of our nation and the world depends upon the possibility of developing true wisdom through the unrestricted search for truth and freedom of thought which includes freedom of access to the thoughts of others.

To us Americans much has been given; of us much is required. With all our faults and mistakes, it is our strength in support of the freedom our forefathers loved which has saved mankind from subjection to totalitarian power. If we now fail, the vision will perish, not soon to be revived. It is for us to prove that neither communism nor McCarthyism is the end of the American dream. (Quoted from Norman Thomas, *The Test of Freedom*. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1954, p. 197)

The Indiana Town Plan

John R. Sahli

INDIANA is a pleasant, tree-shaded county seat, a typical small town in all respects. In the 1950 census, it boasted a population of 11,743. Its cultural life is superior to that of most Western Pennsylvania communities and includes a good public school system, large and well filled churches, and the second largest State Teachers College in Pennsylvania.

A clean, quiet community, with a fine shopping center, Indiana has been particularly attractive to retiring farmers, teachers, and ministers, as well as to the foremen, office personnel, and owners of the rich coal mines in the vicinity. For this reason, for a long period of time, little effort was made to secure new local industries.

It could not be hoped, of course, that these conditions would exist forever. In the late 1920's, the population of our county began to show a marked decrease. The quiet peaceful atmosphere which attracted many of retiring age in itself led many young people to follow the example of Jimmy Stewart, the film star and Indiana's favorite son, and seek greener pastures. Then, as "King Coal" slipped backward in a competitive fuel era and mine mechanization increased, the resultant decline in coal mining (from 10,475,299 tons in 1922 to 8,547,988 tons in 1950) caused many people to look elsewhere for employment. The 1950 census showed a county-wide decrease of over 4,000 in population since 1920.

Here at Keith School on the campus of Indiana State Teachers College, we felt that it was high time we did something about town planning in an attempt to make our town more attractive to new industries and prospective home owners. The projected Community Planning Unit had many possibilities from an educational point of view. Some of these were:

To bridge the previous Citizenship Units studied and the Pennsylvania History and Government that is required by law to be studied.

The project here described was carried on by ninth-grade students of the campus school of the State Teachers College in Indiana, Pennsylvania. The author of this report teaches social studies in both the campus school and the college.

To develop such social studies research skills as personal interviews, discriminating reading of publicity and planning brochures, map making and reading, telephoning and interviewing etiquette, outlining, letter writing, and oral and written reporting.

To draw together more closely the school and the community of which it was an integral part, and to make all citizens more acutely aware of their community's needs.

Finally, to draw those conclusions that might provide a better plan for the future.

We were fortunate in having available a number of published community plans prepared by a skilled planning consultant.¹ These contained ideas understandable to ninth grade citizenship students, and they could be transposed to local needs. Major divisions in a typical Town Plan included: General Background; The Planning Area; Streets and Highways; Public Utilities; Recreation; Public Schools; Public Buildings; Shopping Center; Residential Areas; Other Land Uses; Administrative Plan; Financial Plan.²

After a careful study of the planning booklets, the students decided on which committees they would prefer to work, listing three choices so that there could be some latitude in assignment. There were to be no more than five committees with no more than six on any one committee. Each was to have a chairman and a recorder.

The studies made depended on student interests. For the two years that the unit has been in operation the problems studied have been:

1952	1953
Education	Administrative Plan
Industry and Commerce	Industry and Commerce
Recreation	Public Buildings
Transportation	Recreation
	Transportation and Communication

These topics, that may be adapted to any set of community needs, showed that in Indiana the youthful planners were aware of their town's

¹ This consultant is Clifton E. Rodgers of Beaver Falls, Pa., and the prepared plans were for Beaver Falls, Carlisle, Harrisburg, Tobyhanna, and Perryopolis. Also available was the Beaver County Plan, prepared by Michael Baker of Beaver, Pa., and *An Economic Survey of Indiana County* by Roger B. Saylor and Alice Warne. All of these communities are in Pennsylvania and have many related problems.

² Table of Contents, *Perryopolis Town Plan*, 1949.

particular economic and recreational problems.

The committees prepared outlines of the materials that would be needed in the final report. A sample outline follows:

Recreation

- I. Indoor Recreation
 - A. Recreation spots
 1. Teen age sweet shops
 2. Indiana Roller Rink
 3. Movies
 4. Pool halls and bowling alleys
 - B. Recommendations
- II. School Recreation
 - A. Keith School
 - B. Public Schools
 1. Indiana High School
 2. Horace Mann School
 3. Thaddeus Stevens School
 - C. Facilities for Recreation
 - D. Recommendations
- III. Outdoor Recreation
 - A. Problems
 1. Insufficient kinds
 2. Poor locations
 3. Inadequate funds
 - B. Recommendations
- IV. Organization Recreation
 - A. Fraternal organizations
 - B. Social organizations
 - C. Recommendations
- V. Appendices
 - A. Map showing the location of Indiana's schools
 - B. Map showing the location of Indiana's playgrounds
 - C. Map showing theatres, pool halls, bowling alleys, etc.
 - D. Maps of individual playgrounds, showing location, equipment, etc.
 - E. Floor plan of "Fat Boy's Jive"
 - F. Floor plan of Teen Age Club
 - G. Floor plan of VFW Club
 - H. Brochure showing list of suggested recreational activities for Indiana (This was the first time that such a list had been compiled in Indiana)

In order that each could be completely filled in, the students read the local papers, Chamber of Commerce brochures, and local history. They also secured interviews with leaders in each of the problem areas. The Committee on Education contacted six local public school and college administrators, as well as teachers and high school students, and other members of the community, in order to secure a complete picture of the school's needs.

In response to an appeal from the local newspaper for letters to the editor that would suggest ways to improve the community, a letter-writing project resulted and the best of the letters were submitted for publication.

In a "give and take" class discussion, each committee, using maps for illustrations, pre-

sented its problem and possible solution. Exercising critical judgment of their own materials and accepting suggestions from other members of the group, the committees finally presented a mimeographed plan of a suggested course of action for the future—The Indiana Town Plan. Some of the recommendations were:

That a Community Planning Commission for coordinating the cultural, educational, industrial, and recreational plans for Indiana's future be established.

The YMCA, abandoned during depression years, be reorganized.

That two sub-fire stations be set up.

That the public school help to support the community library.

That the issuance of fire zone permits be transferred from the borough council to the town engineer.

That, a youth council be elected from both the Keith school and the high school to meet regularly with the borough council and report back to their schools.

That, in addition to the present two playgrounds, two more be added and include wading pools and other facilities not a part of the present system.

That a new high school building be constructed and work on the proposed Memorial Field be postponed.

That the present College Memorial Field be enlarged to satisfy the needs of both the college and the high school as one Memorial Field.

That the present borough airport be developed on a county basis.

That one centrally located bus terminal, with parking facilities, be developed.

That there be greater effort made to attract tourists.

With the aid of funds supplied by the Keith Junior Historians, the mimeographed report was made available to members of the Chamber of Commerce, the borough council, the class members, and many other interested persons. Many who read the report felt that they had gained a deeper appreciation of their community.

The students themselves believe that this project was worthwhile. Here is a random sample of their remarks:

This unit did a lot to get us thinking about our town. . . . Because we had to have interviews we did more work. . . . I believe that if the people of Indiana see our planning, it will wake them up. . . . It taught us how to go out and interview people intelligently. . . . It takes more than one committee or one group to improve a town as large as Indiana. . . . It is a good unit because we will be the ones that will be running Indiana in a few years, but it is also important for the people who are at present running Indiana to know about these things.

In support of these opinions, the executive secretary of the local Chamber of Commerce said: "A study like this cannot help but be helpful in making straight thinking citizens, alert to their community's needs."

The Land and Citizenship

Armin K. Lobeck

The land and citizenship.

I interpret this to mean the land, the sea, and the air. The term "land," I would say, embodies all our natural resources.

And "citizenship," I presume, means not only a citizen of the United States, but a citizen of the world—a responsible member of the human race.

The manifold problems relating to the utilization of natural resources which humanity has to solve range all the way from the local problems of the small farmer and fisherman to the billion-dollar government operations of national or even world-wide importance.

In the one case the individual acts alone and makes his decisions pretty much independently of the decisions of other people. In the second case there are committees, commissions, or authorities whose decisions may be in varying degree affected by public opinion and by public support.

Our purpose today is to consider how we, as teachers, can best prepare our citizens to cope with these situations. Let us at the outset, in our teaching, cause it to be realized that in hardly any case, large or small, is there any single final infallible answer. There are always at least two sides to every question. To realize this is to approach the problem with tolerance and with a mind open to all points of view.

In our thinking about these things it is necessary to fall back upon certain guiding principles or, let us say, certain fundamental facts which bear upon the solution of any problem that concerns the utilization of the land. As I see it, these principals or rules of action fall into four categories, as follows:

First, the laws of NATURE

Second, the laws of ECONOMICS

Third, the laws of MAN, his customs and traditions

Fourth, the laws of ETHICS and MORALITY

The author, who is Professor of Geology at Columbia University, presented this paper at a general session of the National Council of Geography Teachers in Buffalo on November 27, 1953.

In any situation which arises, upon which decisions have to be made, it will be found that we have to take into account each of these four categories of guiding principles. Sometimes one is dominant, sometimes another. In many instances, we find that these several kinds of laws seem to be incompatible. A weighing of conflicting rules then becomes necessary before a final judgment can be made. This is sometimes fraught with great difficulty.

With these preliminary observations let us proceed to an examination of each of these four kinds of guiding principles toward which we must turn for help.

THE LAWS OF NATURE

First are the natural laws. These are the laws and facts which have been learned by scientific study. Many of them have been discovered merely by observation and experience. I am sure it is right that we should review these laws first and obey them implicitly. They are indeed hard and fast rules about which we have nothing to say. We may have varying opinions as to what the laws actually are, but the laws themselves are real and invariable. We know they cannot be changed, and we resign ourselves only to finding out what they are and abiding by them.

All of our problems having to do with soils, their improvement and maintenance; with crops and animals, their production and breeding—all of these most fundamental problems of mankind are solved only by the application of natural laws. We may call them simply scientific facts, the facts of chemistry, of physics, and of biology. I need hardly here relate to you the vast number of problems which have been solved in recent years in this whole field of agriculture and animal husbandry by the understanding which has come about through all kinds of scientific work.

And this applies not only to the soils and the crops themselves, but to all manner of contributing instrumentalities. The mechanization of farms and farm machinery, the improvement of roads, the introduction of electricity, of telephones, of rural mail delivery and communication of all kinds, of irrigation and drainage—all of these things are revolutionizing every facet of

agriculture and are changing the methods that have come down through the ages. And what I have just said applies also to all other activities that relate to the exploitation of natural resources, of forestry, of mining, and of fishing. Without the discovery and then the application of scientific rules, these many advances would not be possible.

Now, I have been stressing the importance of these developments as if they were all to the good. It is true, all these changes in the way of doing things have been made possible by proper regard for the inexorable laws of nature, but is that enough? Just because we can mould nature to our own uses, does that necessarily mean that it is wise or desirable to do so? By what other rules must we also be guided?

THE LAWS OF ECONOMICS

The second category of rules are the laws of economics. We exist in a highly organized world. People everywhere are interdependent upon each other. That is why we have mediums of exchange, devices whereby one kind of want or need can be converted into another kind. Even the most backward and underdeveloped people know the meaning of money.

The laws of economics are simply the laws which tell us whether a course of action is financially practicable. The ramifications of economics could well take us far afield from the subject at hand, but I think that everyone will agree to the question which economics tries to answer for us when we say: "Will it pay?" "Can we afford to do so and so?" "Is such and such an action within our means?"

For example, take a farm that is being badly destroyed by soil erosion. The remedy is fairly simple and well known. It may involve contour plowing, terracing, planting grass or trees, a reduction in the amount of grazing, ditching, soil treatment, or other expedients. Science has already provided the answer. But there is the matter of expense. Can the farmer afford to do it?

This is a universal situation. It occurs almost daily in our personal affairs. We know what ought to be done to improve certain conditions but we lack the financial means to do it. In the whole vast domain of industry, engineering, or government activities, this is the big problem. We may imagine, perhaps, that governments do not have to think in terms of profit and loss, but this is not true. Taking the world as a whole, all activities in it, private and public, universities, research, production, and even war—all these

things in the long run boil down to doing what is financially possible. Only a wealthy world, for instance, can fight an atomic war. A poverty-stricken world would have to go back to bows and arrows or just clubs. In the long run and in a broad view, the laws of economics are unyielding.

Of course, when we actually come to solve problems of this kind, when we have to resolve this dilemma and try to decide between what to do and whether we can do it, we usually discover that even though we cannot afford to solve a given problem in its entirety, we can usually attack it piecemeal and make some improvement, even though it may be only a slight one. Our best effort then is directed to finding out just what particular course of action will produce the greatest results compatible with the amount of money that we can afford to spend upon it. If we can make any headway at all, we will be lifting ourselves up by our own bootstraps. This is what the human race has been doing since it first began to emerge from a purely animal status. This is precisely what the various programs for the underdeveloped parts of the world are attempting to do. In the long run, only by teaching people to help themselves can advance be made. Contributions from the outside, like loans to a farmer to improve his farm, can only be temporary. If the world as a whole must be self-supporting, then individual groups too must eventually attain that condition.

Within the limited range of most of our activities, we are so preoccupied with finding out how something must be done and whether we can afford to do it that we do not realize that there are still other limitations to our actions. There are other laws which we must obey, such as the laws of man himself.

THE LAWS OF MAN

By the laws of man, I refer not only to the laws on the statute books, but to the unwritten laws, the customs and traditions of people. These are even more compelling than the law books.

In our dealings with animals we fortunately do not usually have to consider their individual tastes and desires. Cows throughout the world eat about the same kind of food and require about the same kind of intellectual diversions. But with man, it is different.

The development of the human race has brought about endless diversifications in cultural backgrounds so that hardly any two individuals have exactly the same wants. And any two cul-

tural groups may have very little indeed in common.

In a great almost self-sufficient body of people like those in the United States, we are not always conscious of the very different traditions and customs of other peoples. The melting pot of the United States successfully amalgamates these diverse traits of behavior and thinking, during a generation or so, into the homogeneous characteristics which we call American. This character we take as an index of what is right and proper, and we overlook the fact that customs and traditions and ways of thinking contrary to our own are just as legitimate and normal.

It is in our dealings with people with other cultural backgrounds that we find it necessary to take into account some of these man-made regulations. Most of us in our everyday affairs do not find it much of a problem to abide by the laws and statutes of our own country. These laws and statutes in general arise from our own cultural traditions and are pretty much a part of ourselves. It is usually the unwritten laws of other people, whose habits we do not know so well, that gives us trouble.

Even among ourselves, of course, there is diversity of taste in what are relatively small matters, for which there is apparently no logical explanation. Nevertheless this diversity of taste may be just as controlling a factor as a natural or an economic law.

Let me give you a rather homely example of this, familiar I dare say to most of you. In New England, notably in the region around Boston, brown eggs are esteemed over white eggs, whereas in New York City the white eggs are preferred, and therefore command a higher price.

You can see that financially this becomes an important matter which cannot be overlooked with impunity by poultrymen. And likewise New England chowder is very different from Manhattan chowder, which is anathema to a Bostonian.

Throughout the United States there are local variations in taste and habits which have nothing to do with the geographical differences of the regions themselves. They may result from causes long outdated, or they may be imported carry-overs from people with other cultural backgrounds. Many of them are related to religious customs and beliefs. They are not, however, to be considered moral and ethical laws, but are to be considered rather as traditions and habits. The predominant use of turkeys at Thanksgiv-

ing, of fish on Fridays, the avoidance of certain meats, or even the matter of fasting, of colored eggs at Easter time, cards at Christmas, Mother's Day gifts, styles of clothing, furniture, and household appliances, even the belief or disbelief in democracy and the rights of the individual, or of private and public ownership, all of these ideas and many others are dictated not always by any logical or natural explanation but by customs and emotional habits that have been brought about in various ways.

The only safe way for us to operate in a world of varied tastes and desires, influenced often by emotion and prejudice, is to put ourselves in the other person's place. It means particularly that in actions which concern people, and not only things, it is necessary to know something about the background of these people and their cultural milieu or environment.

Woe betide the parent who buys clothes for his young boy or girl without finding out first what, in the youngster's estimation and in the estimation of his own fellows, is the proper garb. In this, logic and reasoning will not help toward any solution.

If this is difficult in our own homes and among our own people, think how much more difficult it is when we deal with totally different cultural backgrounds. President Eisenhower tells how this lesson was brought home to him forcibly when he was inspecting a Point Four housing development in Africa which was designed to improve the lot of the natives. The women, however, were not at all pleased with their new homes, provided with running water, when they had been accustomed to gather around a common well, for this was their one opportunity for social contacts.

To sum up, then, this means that in our efforts to bring about a better use of the land, it is necessary to take account of the people who may also be affected—to learn their habits and prejudices and to devise our plans accordingly.

All of this does not necessarily mean that the habits of people cannot be altered, but it does mean that we cannot uproot these habits at one stroke. Gradually, through education and example, almost any habits and customs can be changed. It is necessary, however, that we recognize the problem which is involved.

THE LAWS OF ETHICS AND MORALITY

This, in a way, brings us to the consideration of our fourth category of laws, the laws of ethics and morality. We must decide, in selecting our

course of action, whether it is a right and proper one. We are not concerned here with whether it will succeed, but whether it is eminently desirable, not only for ourselves but for humanity in general. Many of our efforts at long range conservation fall into this category. Until very recent years, the human race has not given much thought to its distant future. It was always too much preoccupied with the present. But now, with the gradual depletion of certain exhaustible resources, combined with the constant increase in population, we feel morally obligated to see to it that these resources are not squandered. It is only just and proper that we leave something to later generations. Actually this moral obligation to conserve may be in conflict with the laws that economics imposes upon a given situation. For instance, it is usually more expensive to operate a mine in such a way as to leave a certain amount of valuable reserves underground, and to utilize to the fullest extent the ores which are actually taken out of the ground.

In various ways we find this to be true in all of our relationships with the natural environment. There is a moral obligation that we should not be wasteful, and that we should consider our natural heritage a trust to be used and enjoyed conservatively and passed on as inviolate as possible to our descendants. Because, at any moment it may be cheaper to do so, we do not therefore have the right to exhaust and destroy.

When we, for example, establish nature preserves and wild life refuges for our migrating birds, we do so in the belief that our children's children are entitled to know and to enjoy the life of nature which previous generations have possessed, and which should not be denied the later ones.

When we examine these moral laws and obligations we find that they represent the aspirations of the human race. They represent the things we believe in, those things which are even more important than food, shelter, and clothing. They are the things of the spirit, the things which bring heaven closer to us here upon the earth.

Some further examples of this deserve mention. Our search for beauty, for attractive homes and landscapes, parks and parkways—all this stems, not from utilitarian motives, but from our striving for the spiritual things of life, the things that make life worth while.

Of course, there is not always universal agreement among people as to what is good and what is bad. Tastes differ, and what seems appropriate to one does not always seem proper to another.

In Yellowstone Park, for example, the forests, like many northern forests, are encumbered with vast quantities of wind-blown trees. To one unaccustomed to this sort of thing and who expects a park to be park-like, this is very untidy indeed. A woman of misguided judgment and great wealth once offered the National Park Service a sum of money to enable the park authorities to remove this fallen timber from the vicinity of the park highways in the belief that this would make them more attractive. The National Parks, however, are designed to preserve nature in her own way. To those of us brought up under the artificialities of civilization, it is difficult to observe the disorder of nature without wanting to do something about it. So we have this dilemma of having to decide how far we shall go in changing the natural appearance of the land. In some countries of the world and in some parts of our own country, man has managed to fit himself unobtrusively into the natural scene. In other cases, as we well know, there is a jarring note. This may be necessary. No matter how scientifically a mine is developed, or a forest cut down, or a highway built, or fields cultivated, there will be unsightly aspects in the operations. The laws of economics play their part too. Often they are dominant. Little wonder, then, that our ethical principles are violated. They are very often, indeed, the first to go.

The difficulty, in any situation, of compromising all these laws—those imposed by nature, by economics, by man and his customs, and by good taste and morality, is great indeed. Usually there is no one answer, and the best we can do is to strike some kind of a happy balance.

At this point, I dare say, you have become utterly confused, for I seem to have given no kind of an answer to any single kind of a problem. You ask: "What then are we to do as teachers? How can we prepare others to answer questions for which we ourselves have difficulty in finding a solution?" To these questions my answer is as follows. Do not attempt to solve specific problems about conservation, about the use of the land, about the development of our natural resources. Facts and circumstances change with time and place. Every problem is unique. And what applies to one does not necessarily apply to another. The best we can do, therefore, is to understand and to teach some of the basic principles which I have enumerated. In our schools, therefore, this means teaching the basic laws of science, the facts of nature, physics, chem-

(Concluded on page 163)

Origins of the Core Concept

Harris Harvill

AMONG the men who helped to create the American Republic were those who believed that the citizens of a democracy must be educated for civic competence. But the founding fathers were thinking primarily of elementary education. Most of them gave hardly a thought to universal public secondary education. For half a century after the winning of independence, the structure of American life remained essentially aristocratic, during which time educational statesmen groped for some feasible scheme which would realize their theory concerning the necessity of universal education in a democracy.

DEMOCRATIZATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

As the structure of American life became more and more democratic after 1830, labor leaders, statesmen, humanitarian reformers, and educators joined forces in their demand for free and universal education. Except in the South, this dream was substantially realized by the last half of the nineteenth century. By 1872, the high school was legally established as part of the American tax-supported school system. In so far as student personnel was concerned, however, the American secondary school continued until the twentieth century to be a "highly selective," aristocratic institution, weeding out the many and selecting a few favored students for college and eventual entrance into the professions.

In the twentieth century the high school experienced an unprecedented influx of students as the increasing mechanization of American life freed youth from home and industrial labor and demanded from them ever-increasing levels of technical competence before entrance upon the job market. The growing conviction of American

citizens that the safety and welfare of the nation depended upon a minimum of 12 years of free, tax-supported education helped swell the enrollment of the secondary school. Between 1890 and 1940 secondary school enrollments increased 2,000 percent. As the high school thus became an educational institution for the masses, twentieth century American society now imposed upon it a *greatly increased responsibility* for educating all American youth for civic competence—a task which traditionally and primarily had been assigned to the elementary school. This heightened responsibility of the secondary school for citizenship education was a major force in the development of the modern core concept.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF SCIENCE

The biologist stresses the fact that man is an animal. This fact was known to the ancients, forgotten by the medieval Western European, and reestablished by modern biology. Only recently, however, has the integrative nature of the human mechanism become increasingly clear to scientists. Scientific study of the interdependent nervous and endocrine systems of the human body have led to the concept of man as an integrated organism. Just as it is now clear to the biologist that the human body is an integrated physicochemical mechanism, so it is now clear to the psychologist that the human body is the physical stuff from which all human activities are derived. In the third and fourth decades of the twentieth century American educators experimenting with "unified" curricula organized around themes, culture-epochs, and the like sought theoretical justification for such experimentation in organismic psychology with its biologic basis.

The psychologists have also made major contributions to the development of the core concept. The German psychologist, Herbart, must receive credit for the first important demand in modern times that a unity be achieved among the learning experiences of school youth. The Herbartian doctrine of correlation was introduced into this country near the close of the nineteenth century by Charles De Garmo and Frank and Charles McMurray. These men, and

This is the second of three articles by the author on the subject of the core curriculum. His initial article in the January issue dealt with the advantages of this form of organization. In his next article, he will discuss the nature of the core curriculum. Dr. Harvill is director of secondary education in the State Teachers College at Troy, Alabama.

later John Dewey, continually indicted the lack of unity in the school experiences of children. The influence of the Herbartian doctrine of correlation led to experimentation with new curricula which involved organized classroom attacks upon whole systems of related materials instead of piecemeal mastery of single items of knowledge. Out of this experimentation came the beginning concept of the modern "unit."

This striving to promote wholeness in learning activity flowered in the twentieth century in the development of German Gestalt psychology (since 1912) and its American counterpart, organismic psychology (since 1924). The concepts of the Gestalt and organismic school gave support to the effort of American educators to devise a curriculum which would promote wholeness or unity in the school experiences of children. The concepts of the core as a "unified" course is due in part to this emphasis on "wholeness in learning."

As more and more elective courses were added to the high school curriculum after the report of the Committee of Ten in 1893, certain courses were considered as "constants," to be taken by all students in preparation for citizenship. These constants were sometimes referred to as the "core" of the curriculum.

Gradually, however, as American educators in the twentieth century came more and more to accept the idea that "we learn what we live," many educators became convinced that the type of civic competence needed in a free society could not be guaranteed by setting up a group of courses required of all students, but could be developed only through a *process of social living* aimed at the development of those habits, skills, appreciations, and understandings needed by all citizens of a democratic society. Thus the secondary school's heightened responsibility for citizenship education coupled with the pragmatic idea of "learning through living" gave rise to the concept of the core as a process of democratic living and learning.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The success of the natural and biological sciences in applying the scientific method to the discovery of new truths led to an increasing demand that the social sciences employ the same objective approach in their study of human relationships. In answer to this demand, Robert and Helen Lynd in the 1920's adapted the objective techniques of cultural anthropology to the critical appraisal of the life processes (social func-

tions) of a typical American community. The Lynds organized all the data resulting from their several years' study of *Middletown* around six major areas of living.

The Lynds' major research study in the field of cultural anthropology gave support to the effort of educators trying to build a revised school curriculum organized around *social functions* as opposed to the organization of the curriculum around traditional subjects only. Among educators whose work was supported by the Lynds' study in cultural anthropology were Doak S. Campbell, Hollis Caswell, and Henry Harap, whose influence was particularly strong in Virginia and Alabama. In these two states the theory of the core curriculum, based on a scope and sequence chart organized around social functions, was developed exhaustively in curriculum bulletins and was implemented in many schools. Curriculum reorganization programs based on categories of "main trunk life activities" spread into many other states.

Of especial interest to the developing core is the fact that such social functions, derived from or supported by cultural anthropology, have eventually emerged as the ten "Imperative Needs of Youth" as listed by the Educational Policies Commission in its publication, *Education for All American Youth*. Three of these "Imperative Needs of Youth," or social functions, serve as the scope of the "unified course in Common Learnings" (core curriculum) as outlined by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in its publication, *Planning for American Youth*.

THE EMERGING CORE CONCEPT

With the appointment of the Committee of Ten by the National Education Association in 1892, an organized movement began among American educators to criticize and improve the secondary school curriculum. This movement gradually gained momentum, reaching its peak in the third and fourth decades of the twentieth century.

Around 1910, the origin of the junior high school gave impetus to the developing core by seeking to combine traditionally compartmentalized subjects into "broad courses" such as general science, social studies, and the language arts. In 1918, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education recognized that "unification" and "specialization" were supplementary roles of the secondary school curriculum. About 1920, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools began its effort to func-

tionalize the secondary school curriculum. In 1926, the National Society for the Study of Education indicated the necessity for grouping isolated subject matter into broader units and insisted that the materials of instruction should be assembled from the starting point of the needs of the learner.

In 1935, the Society for Curriculum Study through its Committee on Secondary Education published *A Challenge to Secondary Education*. Chapter II of this publication described the core curriculum plans for the secondary schools of Virginia. This commitment of an entire state to the development in its secondary schools of the core curriculum based on "major areas of living" was a landmark in the history of the core curriculum in American education. In 1936, the influential Department of Secondary School Principals accepted the idea that along with its function of "specialization," the secondary school must perform the function of "unification," that is, education for citizenship, which is the primary purpose of the core curriculum.

Of particular importance to the developing core concept was the Progressive Education Association's Eight Year Study. The success of thirty experimental schools in preparing boys and girls for both college entrance and for life put the stamp of professional respectability on

experimental integrative-type programs. By 1938 and 1940 respectively, the Educational Policies Commission and the American Youth Commission had joined the demand for a reorganized secondary school curriculum.

Though World War II retarded the organized curriculum revision movement in American secondary schools, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in 1944 in its publication, *Education for All American Youth* pledged itself in favor of developing a "unified course in Common Learnings" (core program) in each grade of America's high schools. In the same year the National Association of Secondary School Principals in *Planning for American Youth* accepted the concept of the core curriculum as outlined by the Educational Policies Commission.

Since World War II, interest in and experimentation with the core have increased in American high schools. A 1950 bulletin, *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools*, published by the United States Office of Education shows the core in 833 of this country's 23,947 secondary schools and cites evidence that interest in the core is spreading.¹

¹Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools*, Federal Security Agency Office of Education, Bulletin No. 5, 1950.

THE LAND AND CITIZENSHIP

(Continued from page 160)

istry, biology, geology, and geography. It means, too, teaching the essential facts of economics with all of their multitudinous implications and ramifications, something which perhaps in most of our schools we can only hint at by suggesting their complexity, and the need of a tolerant point of view. It means, too, that in our teaching of the social sciences there should be an understanding of human nature, together with something of man's history and cultural traditions. I dare say that many wiser decisions would be made as we go about the exploitation of our natural resources if we had absorbed more of the wisdom and the culture that comes from the liberalizing influence of great literature and great art.

And finally, there is place for the development of higher ethical standards and good taste,

for the cultivation of moral principles, and the ability to decide between what is right and what is wrong.

In summing up, then, it means that it is necessary to recognize the existence of certain fundamental principles of action, and that if we do not know them ourselves there are others who have devoted their lives to finding out what these principles are. We can weigh the evidence provided by our scientists, our economists, our historians and sociologists, and our religious leaders, before we come to any ultimate conclusions.

This is the background which we should provide to enable our future citizens to acquire the judgment and maturity that will help them to evaluate the many facets that involve our use of the land.

Teaching About Canada in American Schools

E. L. Daniher

THE very title upon which I have been asked to speak presupposes a lack of reliable information and proper understanding regarding matters Canadian. In the half-hour at my disposal I will speak first, briefly, on the "why" of teaching about Canada in American Schools; then, at some length on "what" to teach, and end with some suggestions on "how" it may be done.

WHY

First as to the "why." Fifteen or twenty years ago the fanciful notions that American visitors had of Canada were good for a laugh whenever a group of us natives got upon that subject. Quite bona fide incidents were numerous; such as, the well-filled car that rolled along Lake Shore Boulevard in Toronto on a hot July day with two pairs of skis lashed securely along the top. Or the tourist who stopped at the information booth with the inquiry, "We want to see the Quints and would like to call on my cousin in Alberta. Can we make both in the two days?" Or the kindly lady in a San Francisco hotel, "We like Canada and after the war we are going to do right by you and give you citizenship. You are in the war, aren't you?"

Now, it's really too bad, in a way, that such delightful stories are becoming harder to pick up. But, at the time, unfortunately there were many thinner skinned Canadians lacking in historical sense, or suffering from an inferiority complex, who took umbrage at this display of ignorance on the part of their neighbours, with-

out being able to make a much better showing themselves. On the whole, it was not conducive to good relations between our two countries.

A number of American and Canadian educators felt that something should be done about it. Accordingly in 1944, the Canada-United States Committee on Education was set up to investigate the whole matter. Co-operation in the war, with growing mutual respect, had produced a favourable climate for such an undertaking. Since that time the Committee has done a number of research jobs—first, to find the facts of the case on both sides of the border, and second, to discover ways and means of meeting the situation.

The Committee's first report, "A Study of National History Textbooks Used in the Schools of Canada and the United States," was published in 1947. A second investigation, "Current Practices in Canadian-American Interchange of Educational Personnel," was reported in 1948. Two parallel and very interesting studies were made in the University of Michigan and the University of Toronto in the 1949 summer schools for teachers—all of whom were university graduates. (Both Canadian and American teachers are bound to blush a bit as they scan the findings regarding their knowledge of the other country.) A somewhat similar study was made on large groups of high school students in both countries, as reported by Dr. Brouillette in 1950. These reports are available and should be read by all who claim to be interested in relations between our two countries.

If in general Americans fare less favourably than Canadians in these analyses, that is not a matter about which one should be particularly surprised. It is due to a carry-over by both authors and teachers of the historical viewpoint of an earlier period when the United States was quite national and self-contained—fully absorbed by the problems of her own expansion. Her economic self-sufficiency made it quite unnecessary for her to be concerned with world economic problems.

This interesting and illuminating article about the place of Canada in the social studies program of the schools of the United States was presented at a joint meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers and the National Council for the Social Studies in Buffalo last November. Mr. Daniher has just retired from the staff of the Ontario College of Education, where he held the position of Professor of Methods in Geography and History.

But circumstances have changed immeasurably in the last generation; the United States has been brought into a position of world leadership and is moving towards the day when she will be interdependent with other nations in world economics and world trade. And we know that democratic nations can function successfully only when all levels in the citizenship are well informed. These new conditions, I take it, have led your committee to feel that a discussion on how American schools can develop international understanding is both important and timely.

WHAT

I propose to spend the major portion of my time on the topic of "what" American schools should teach, and finish up with some reference as to "how" it may be done.

Regarding "what" should be taught, the underlying theme should be, "Let it be accurate and reliable." We have both suffered too much already from inaccurate, unbalanced, distorted information. As always happens when information is limited, the unusual, the picturesque and the bizarre become emphasized out of all proper proportion.

First, let us be accurate about the physical set-up of Canada—its size, lay of the land, nature of soils, climate and natural vegetation.

Sometimes the size of Canada is talked about rather foolishly in terms of square miles—3,800,000 of them, somewhat greater than the area of United States with Alaska included. But the size of a country must always be thought of in terms of man's ability to establish "workable connections with the land," and in those terms Canada shrinks rather badly. But the point I wish to make here is that it must not be shrunk to a "200-mile strip along the international boundary." The truth lies somewhere between these extremes, as we shall see a little farther on.

The general layout of mountain ranges, plains and plateaus in the United States is fairly repeated in Canada, with an added feature—the Canadian Shield, a great horseshoe (in more than one sense) ringed about Hudson Bay. There is a good deal of misconception about the shield region even in Canada. It is more properly called a plateau. The whole plateau, for 300 to 500 miles back, is tilted gently towards the Bay and the basin thus drained comprises nearly half the area of Canada. Indeed on the western side, the plains rise higher than the plateau, and rivers flow all the way from the Athabasca Ice Fields into Hudson Bay, a distance of a thousand miles.

The point is, keep the precambrian shield down to proper elevation.

Most of the overburden was scoured away by successive glacial encroachments and a good deal of this debris was deposited in the ten to fifteen feet of black topsoil in the state of Minnesota. Driving through that area, a Canadian must confess to an initial feeling of envy. But on second thought, one must conclude that Providence was wise after all. The soil now reposes in an area where climatic conditions make it much more productive. Then, too, the bared rock has made much more simple the two operations most suitable to the shield area; the exploration for minerals and the building of power plants. Enough soil has accumulated to produce fair conifer growth and the forest products combine nicely with the water power. At least we are not asking you to put the Minnesota loam back.

What should be said about the climate? The far north, with its sparse population and its wide continental swing from long warm summer days to extremely cold winter ones, need not greatly concern us. Of the southerly parts, sufficient to say here that the factors producing climate have no knowledge of the 49th parallel. Summer conditions press their way northward, and winter conditions force their way southward with the passing of the seasons. Let us avoid the pitfall of making broad generalizations from the records of a particular place under particular conditions. We have a spot north of Lake Superior where the temperature sometimes gets down to 30 or 40 degrees below zero. But that is no reason for an otherwise thoroughly good, newly-published American geography saying, "In Southern Ontario winter temperatures from 30 to 40 degrees below zero are not uncommon." The coldest day I have ever known was 21 degrees below, but checking with the weather office I find that the thermometer did register 26 degrees below in 1859. The mean January temperature in Toronto is 23 degrees above zero. Climatic data are easily come by and there is no excuse for such misleading information. Snow is so unreliable that cutters and sleighs are pretty much a thing of the past. Our wind storms are usually fairly respectable, seldom indulging in wild blow-outs. Once in a while an uncontrolled monster of destruction fails to recognize the international boundary line—as did the tornado that passed over from Port Huron to Sarmia last May. Generally speaking, our climate is just what you would expect to find as you move slowly northward.

FROM this point, we can conveniently pass over to the next issue—accuracy in our understanding of economic conditions. What should be said about that oft-heard remark that Canada consists of a 200-mile strip 3000 miles long?

Let us recognize the unchallenged fact that 90 percent of the population of Canada is within 200 miles of the border. (We can go further and say that 60 percent of the population lives in the 750 miles between Windsor and Quebec City.) But the statement is misleading if it conveys the impression that the remainder of the country is just waste and wilderness, peopled by Eskimos and policed by the R.C.M.P. in scarlet tunics. All across the country, new developments to the north require a complete reassessment of the situation. Let us note some of these developments without burdening the story with too much detail.

Four hundred miles north of Vancouver, a huge dam has been constructed to create a new lake, a hundred miles long. A tunnel 25 feet in diameter is being driven ten miles through the mountain range to the west to act as a giant penstock with a 2600-foot drop to the generating plant built a quarter-mile inside the mountain. Two million horsepower of electricity will be carried over a fifty-mile transmission line to Kitimat at tidewater, where an electric smelter will produce, when complete, 500,000 tons of aluminum per year. A city to accommodate 50,000 people is part of the plan. So, on the west coast, the 200-mile band must at once be doubled.

To the east of the Rockies, in Alberta, usable area has been extended to the Arctic Circle—beyond the latitude of Fairbanks, Alaska—by the development of the Edmonton oil wells, the wheatlands of the Peace River, the gold mines of Yellowknife on Great Slave Lake and the radium deposits of Port Radium on Great Bear Lake. In northern Manitoba, a railroad has been opened recently to the Lynn Lake copper and nickel district, over 500 miles north of Winnipeg. In the prairie region of Canada, we must learn to think in depths of 600 to 1000 miles.

In the region north of the Great Lakes, the 200-mile concept must stand for the present at least. However, this is one of the richest mining areas of Canada, producing 90 percent of the world's nickel and a large proportion of Canada's output in other minerals. Recently, there has been much excitement over uranium.

Farther east, the usable width of the St. Lawrence Basin is being extended. The Shipshaw Power Plant on the Saguenay River, started

twenty-five years ago and enlarged during the war, is the fourth largest power plant in the world. It provides about 2,000,000 horse power of electricity for the production of aluminum at the Arvida plant of the Aluminum Company of Canada, with an annual output in the neighborhood of a half million tons.

Farther eastward still, a great deal of activity is taking place around the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The most recent large scale development on the North Shore is the opening of the prodigious iron deposits on the Quebec-Labrador boundary. This is being linked to the St. Lawrence by a 360-mile railway to be completed in 1954. Newfoundland already has three major industries—fisheries, forest products and iron ore. To balance this activity on the North Shore, there has been a good deal of stir south of the Gulf, in the mineralized areas of Gaspé and New Brunswick.

This has sounded like a sales talk for an investment-in-Canada campaign. I hope you will believe I have had only one purpose in the whole thing—to get an up-to-date, corrected concept regarding the economic depth of Canada. If we seek reliable knowledge, there must be a constant revision of information from the latest sources.

With this economic development, there is a parallel question regarding the growth and distribution of population, about which we must be equally careful. We must remember that the aluminum industry, the forest industry, and the mining industry are not employers of a huge labour force. Whatever growth takes place, the bulk of the population will still be found in the richer agricultural lands and highly industrialized areas of the south. The expected growth in population is difficult to forecast; when we talk of population trends, we are at once on dangerous ground. Without entering into a discussion of the matter, it could be reported that the best studies would give a picture something like this: the population now stands close to 15 millions, the estimated increase in the next 25 years will raise the count to 25 millions, and in 50 years, to 40 millions. Unforeseen factors may come in to upset these calculations in either direction—up or down.

I HAVE spoken of the importance of accuracy in connection with two aspects of the Canadian scene—the physical set-up bequeathed by nature, and the rapidly changing economic situation. I should like to say something on what might be called, broadly, the cultural aspects of Canadian life.

One of the most frequently met statements made by American writers is that Canadians are cautious and conservative. That is getting near the truth but it is not quite it! No one expression meets the situation. Put it this way: Canadians are willing that *time* should operate in matters of differing opinions or alternative policies. Life situations are usually neither as good nor as bad as you think; it is not a case of black or white, but of varying degrees of grey. Compromise and accommodation and adjustment are not terms of weakness, but of strength—so long as principle is not involved. Usually, nothing very serious will happen if the matter is not settled today. Time is a great worker of miracles. This being the case, why not give it time to work?

Where this temperament came from, I do not know. It may be from a longer term of British tutelage; it may be from the necessity of considering and composing conflicting viewpoints of the two great cultures—Anglo-Saxon and French; or it may be from the proportionately larger influence of the Roman Catholic church in Canada. The point is: it is there.

A better and more wide-spread understanding of this peculiar Canadian characteristic or temperament would enable our American friends to interpret Canadian situations and events more accurately. For instance, it is most difficult for Americans, with a memory of independence gained through convulsive revolution, to understand that Canada has achieved, without violence, a like complete independence of action. Evolution has been slower than revolution, but no less effective. And the structure of the Commonwealth, with some members not even recognizing the monarchy, must be quite beyond comprehension. But we seem able to get along quite well, even though we can't give a nice tidy definition of the Commonwealth or a nice chart of the relationship of its parts. Political traditions in common, shared ideals, mutual respect, generous recognition of other points of view, willingness to cooperate in solving problems—these are the cement that makes a conglomerate into a commonwealth.

Likewise, an appreciation of Canadian temperament will help in the understanding of our intercultural relations within Canada. No one seeks to minimize the sharpness of the cleavage between the Anglo-Saxon and French cultures; there is no point in playing ostrich about the matter. But time will soften and blunt the impact; the problem will work itself out—just how,

nobody knows. We do know that industrialization is profoundly affecting the French-Canadian outlook and the overflowing of French Canadians into other provinces will create more shared experiences for both parties. The rather supercilious Anglo-Saxon will come to recognize more generally the true worth of his compatriot. He may even become bilingual when the learning of French in the schools and the retention of the art in every-day practice make that skill more meaningful.

Similarly, our assimilation policy regarding immigrants can be better understood if the Canadian temperament is kept in mind. Canada has accepted the viewpoint that the newcomer need not toss overboard completely and quickly his former culture and take up an altogether new culture. Rather, Canadianism is to be an amalgam of the worthwhile features of all cultures. Whatsoever is beautiful, lovely, and of good report in music, in craftsmanship, or in thought must be brought as treasure to the community chest—to enrich all. Mind you, we don't live up fully to our ideal, but an awareness of the ideal may help to explain what must often seem to you as slowness, indifference, laxity and failure to have a clean-cut policy.

The whole point I am trying to make is epitomized in Canada's behaviour regarding the St. Lawrence development project—ready to negotiate for thirty years but ready also to go it alone if negotiation should fail. Put it all down to the fact that Canadians are content with a little slower tempo. (But this whole matter of "Similarities and Differences of the Major Values of Canadian and American Peoples" has been the subject of a very carefully prepared paper that is being checked next month, before publication by the Canada-United States Committee on Education, early in the new year.)

In the last few years there seems to have been a growing desire on the part of the American public to know more about Canada, as witness such undertakings as: the series of radio addresses by invited Canadian speakers given last winter over American networks. Or the Forum on Canada at the University of Michigan in October. Or the new Institute of Canadian Affairs now being organized at the University of Rochester, under Dr. Gilbert. It looks as if we are just at the beginning of things in this matter of developing mutual understandings. For a few final minutes I should like to consider the question of "how" our schools can play their part in this movement.

How

The two studies made with teachers in the University of Michigan and the University of Toronto summer schools in 1949, revealed that their knowledge of the other country was gained from many sources, the order of importance being: newspapers and periodicals, schools, and colleges, books, radio, moving pictures, travel, acquaintances, and relatives. The two groups agreed on this order—with one exception. In the case of American teachers, travel moved up to a tied position with books—in third place. Only half as many American teachers were able to say that the sources, other than travel, were useful to them. The simple explanation is that information through these other sources moves from United States to Canada in much greater volume than it does from Canada to the United States. That is, we Canadians have much more chance of knowing about you, through normal channels, than you have of knowing about us. That, in turn, explains the special efforts to which reference was made a few minutes ago. It suggests also that your problem in the schools is much different and much more difficult than ours.

One very fruitful experiment in furthering mutual understanding has been the interchange of visits, as carried on for some years now, between Nichols School, Buffalo, and the University of Toronto Schools; Rochester High School and Northern Vocational School, Toronto; or the more recent ones such as London Collegiates and Detroit High Schools. These practices should be extended. But good as they are, it is obvious that they can never meet the problem in more remote sections of our two countries, the very parts most in need of the experience. Some other, more general plan, would seem necessary.

In Ontario we have made a rather radical revision in the social studies of the Junior High School. While Canada is a central theme throughout, the material is selected and apportioned topically rather than chronologically to the four grades: Grade VII, Canada; VIII, Canada and the Commonwealth; IX, Canada and the Americas; X, Canada and the World. Some of our

teachers have expressed fears that our students may end up knowing more about other nations than about their own. But the general belief is that they will come to know Canada better as they see her, not isolated, but as a nation among other nations in the various relationships. A corresponding plan in the United States may entail a too radical departure from current practice. Our public feels that we need to know about our stronger neighbours; your public will not have as clear a conviction about the necessity of knowing about smaller neighbours. (Indeed, we have gone farther and have provided for two or three years' world history and world geography in the senior high school.)

Another possible way is that proposed by Dr. Erling Hunt on pages 65 and 66 of the report on textbooks referred to earlier. He suggests the drawing of parallels and contrasts in Canada and Latin America when dealing with such topics as: the gaining of independence, the growth of population, the industrial development, foreign relations, etc. Such a procedure, he points out, would not only inform the student on the developments in other countries but would greatly vitalize and illuminate his understanding of developments in his own country. The suggestion is an excellent one, pedagogically sound and attended with a minimum disturbance of present courses. Whether it would be adequate to the task, only time and experience would reveal.

This leads to a final suggestion that I should like to make. In his study of high school students, Dr. Brouillette summarizes, "A significant feeling of friendliness and an attitude of wanting to know more about Canada and Canadians were expressed in the following quotations . . ." and there follow many corroborating excerpts from students' compositions.

I have attempted to say something worthwhile on the "why," "what," and "how" of teaching about Canada in American schools. I am under no illusion that I have answered all the questions or solved all the problems. I am quite happy if I have done no more than raise the questions and define some of the problems connected with a very important matter.

"To imagine there is a goal for this nation and not for all nations taken together, would be absurd."

"Mankind has a work of its own to do, which is a work beyond the reach of any one man, or family, or village, or city, or kingdom." (Quoted from Dante's *The Kingdom*, in James Avery Joyce, *World In The Making*, New York: Henry Schuman, 1955. p. 33)

Problems and the College Survey

Hervey P. Prentiss

THE problems approach in the teaching of American history on the college level is one of the most promising recent developments in the social studies in general education. It introduces the undergraduate to some of the problems of historical interpretation and understanding that concern and interest the present generation of historians. Its use of selected sources and excerpts from some significant specialized studies gives him a speaking acquaintance with some of the materials long known to the professional student of history as those which have given the deepest meaning to his own study of the subject. Its long-range objective is to provide the student with a background of training, as well as of fact, in the consideration of political, economic, and social problems in an atmosphere that can be free of the intensity of feeling that will be inevitably aroused by many of the currently controversial problems of the same character. It aims to equip the student with techniques he can apply in reaching decisions on current problems without being engulfed by partisanship, prejudice, and propaganda.

The growing popularity of the problems approach is attested by the publication for classroom purposes of numerous collections of materials bearing on many of the outstanding problems of the American past. Most of these are intended for courses which are primarily and basically problems courses substituted for the more conventional college survey of American history. They pre-suppose a strong background of high school preparation in the field, a condition which does not often obtain and of which one cannot be at all certain except in a very highly selected student body. There are, therefore, a great many cases in which it seems inadvisable completely to abandon the general survey and go over entirely to the problems approach. At the same time,

there are so many values inherent in the study of problems that one is tempted to ask whether they may not be employed in some measure in conjunction with the customary one-year survey. The writer of this article believes that it is, and for the past three years has varied the conduct of his survey course by the introduction of problems on a limited scale without abandoning the rather systematic classroom and textbook treatment of the subject. A basic text was used for survey purposes, but the supplementary problems study was based on materials from the college library.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF THE COURSE

Five problems were developed for the first semester's work in the history of the United States to 1865 and eight for the second semester's study of the years since 1865. The statement of the problems, accompanied in each case by a selected list of readings, was mimeographed and placed in the hands of each student. Each list of readings contained (1) excerpts from some of the outstanding general histories of the United States, (2) some specialized studies of the period or topic, and (3) extracts from some of the source materials available in printed collections. Since class size made consideration of any one problem by a whole class impracticable, each student was required to participate in a panel discussion or presentation of one problem and then upon the completion of his study to prepare a paper of 1000 to 1500 words setting forth his conclusions.

Initially each panel was left free to make its own presentation as it saw fit. Since this practice too frequently resulted in a routine and sometimes aimless presentation of reading notes, it was abandoned and the instructor became an active member of each panel, guiding the discussion through questions aimed to develop the topic through a critical analysis of the readings. The procedure was further improved when each participant was made responsible for a limited number of definite selections from the readings. In this way a complete coverage could be obtained and all points of view presented. One caution was observed in assigning readings to individuals preparing for a panel. At least one

In this article, the author describes how he incorporated a study of a number of basic problems into the conventional college survey of American history. Dr. Prentiss is head of the Social Studies department at the State Teachers College in Kutztown, Pennsylvania.

reading from each of the categories mentioned in the preceding paragraph was included in each individual assignment. The panel discussions were scheduled to conform to the time schedule of the course as a whole. Thus the panel on the Monroe Doctrine followed the general treatment of the foreign policy of James Monroe and John Quincy Adams, and the panel on the causes of the Civil War followed the study of the politics of the eighteen-fifties.

The papers prepared in answer to the various problems were naturally very uneven in quality. The best were good critical considerations and comparisons of conflicting points of view, while the poorest were mere rehashes of standard textbook treatments. For the most part, however, they seemed to clarify the thinking of the student and were superior to conventional term papers.

Student reaction to the panel discussions was generally good. Some lively discussions were engendered. Students were made aware of some of the vast body of historical literature well-known to graduate students and teachers, but all too often completely unknown to undergraduates. They gained some practice in dealing with the problems of the American past which have many points of resemblance to the problems of the present. They obtained an appreciation of the real nature of historical study which they would have been unlikely to get from general classroom and textbook treatment alone. Each student had a chance to present briefly in speech and writing the results of his own study. He could see that there are at least two sides to every question and that two or more answers are often possible. Most of all, he could hardly avoid seeing that most questions are so complex that only tentative answers subject to revision can be given.

THE LIST OF PROBLEMS¹

I. *Causes of the Revolution.* Were British mercantilist policies the real cause of the American Revolution or did the Revolution spring from a deep desire for democratic political and social reform? To what extent was the Revolution caused by the restrictive economic policies of Great Britain and to what extent was it the

result of the denial of the political liberties of the colonies and the colonists?

II. *Formation of the Constitution.* What was the purpose of the Founding Fathers in the formation and ratification of the Constitution of 1787? Was it to meet a rising demand for a stronger federal union which could protect the liberties asserted in the Declaration of Independence and won by the Revolution and at the same time avoid the weaknesses of the Confederation? Or was it to reassert the controlling power of certain property interests and establish a government which could protect them?

III. *American Foreign Policy and the Monroe Doctrine.* To what extent was the Monroe Doctrine original with James Monroe and John Quincy Adams? To what extent were its principles enunciated in the policies and utterances of earlier American leaders? Was British policy responsible for it, or was it independently American in origin? What bearing does it have on recent and contemporary foreign policy?

IV. *Jacksonian Democracy and the Second Bank of the United States.* In destroying the Second Bank of the United States, Jackson claimed to be acting as the agent of the common man in wiping out a dangerous economic monopoly. Does the evidence uphold this view, or does it indicate that Jackson and his political associates were opportunists seeking an issue? Was the Bank a danger to freedom? Did its destruction serve democratic ends?

V. *Causes of the Civil War.* Was slavery the cause of the Civil War, or was the War the outcome of the clash of conflicting economic interests and their political policies? Was the War an "irrepressible conflict" as Seward called it, or was it the work of a "blundering generation" as Randall and some recent historians have said? How do Northern and Southern interpretations of the War differ? What conclusions can you draw as to the real nature of the conflict?

VI. *Radical Reconstruction Policies.* Was Radical Reconstruction dictated by a desire to do justice to the freed Negro or by a desire to further and protect the interests and position of the Republican party and the Northern business interests? What differences existed between the Presidential and Congressional Reconstruction policies? What did the Reconstruction measures actually do for the freedman? Was Johnson's impeachment necessary? What did Northern interests gain from Radical policies?

VII. *Agrarian Radicalism and the Campaign*
(Concluded on page 174)

¹ The author's original manuscript included a reading list designed to help students in their study of these problems. We regret that space limitations prevent us from publishing this bibliography. Readers who are interested may secure a mimeographed copy of this list by writing directly to Dr. Hervey P. Prentiss, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pennsylvania, enclosing with their requests a self-addressed stamped envelop.—Editor.

Biography in the Social Studies: The Middle Grades

Ralph A. Brown and Marian R. Brown

THE use of biographical materials by social studies teachers in the middle grades—four, five, and six—presents several problems. Not the least of these centers around the question, What kind of biography? So much of the biography available for use with the younger children has the appearance of fiction. There is widespread use of conversation, the frequent invention of dramatic situations, and a disregard of conventional organization and emphasis. The historical scholar, trained in the use of research and the identification of sources, indoctrinated with the aim of objectivity, shudders at the use of imaginative incidents. He knows that the large amount of conversation, for example, cannot be documented. He frequently, therefore, jumps to the conclusion that the book is not an accurate portrayal of the subject and that it will mislead the young readers who may be enthusiastic about its rapid pace and intriguing situations.

It is certainly true that when such materials are produced by careless writers and indifferent publishers, the resulting book may be inaccurate and badly misleading. The reverse is also true. When such books are written by conscientious writers and published by concerns that are aware of the dangers as well as the advantages of such materials, they can be essentially accurate and honest in their portrayal both of personality and of incident. In view of the fact that few young boys and girls of the nine-to-twelve age group have the ability or the interest to absorb straight non-fiction in any large quantity, it should be apparent that much of the biographical material prepared for this group is going to be, in reality, biographical fiction.

This is the third in a series of articles prepared for *Social Education* by Dr. Ralph Brown and Dr. Marian Brown, both of whom are associated with the State University Teachers College at Cortland, New York. In forthcoming articles, the authors will discuss some of the outstanding biographies available for junior and senior high school readers.

Another problem which concerns many teachers in the middle grades is that of locating new materials, of keeping up to date with the offerings of publishers. There are numerous aids that will make the task of such teachers easier and pleasanter. There are, for example, the reviews of children's books in *The New York Times*, the *New York Herald-Tribune*, and the *Saturday Review of Literature*. There are publications such as *The Horn Book*, and the *Publishers' Weekly* that contain such information about children's books. *The Library Journal* (62 West 45th St., New York City) frequently publishes lists of books for young people that belong in every school, for the use of librarian and teacher alike. Recent ones are: *Recommended Children's Books of 1951*, *Recommended Children's Books of 1952*, and Peggy Melcher's *Starred Books from the Library Journal*, "700 complete reviews of the best books for children of the last 17 years." In addition, most publishers of books for young people have catalogues which they will send to teachers on request. One of the best of these is titled *Building America*, "An American Heritage Bookshelf of Longmans Junior Books for Supplementary Reading in Social Studies and the Language Arts." This may be obtained by writing to Longmans, Green and Company, 55 Fifth Ave., New York City.

The matter of how to use biographical materials in the middle grades perplexes some teachers. It seems probable that there is wide-spread acceptance of the value of biographical materials for supplementary reading. The use of such materials in connection with the regular work in social studies is more often overlooked. Children in the middle grades are usually ready for the experience of seeking answers. They use dictionaries and encyclopedias. They will also use biographies, searching through them for specific information, if they are given such assignments.

Regardless of how the materials are used, the problem of selection for a particular youngster remains large. Most teachers will have made, fairly early in any school year, a rough division

of their boys and girls into the good readers and the slow readers. The first group usually will read almost any interesting books. The slow readers find their difficulty, as a rule, in one of two areas: they are poor readers with limited vocabulary and often average or below average intelligence, or else their interest level is very low. With the first group, those who for some reason lack the mechanical ability to read well, the teacher must look for materials that are pitched to a lower grade level. Thus, high school teachers, for example, frequently use materials designed for the middle grades.

Those boys and girls who have, perhaps, average ability to read, but whose interest level is very low, present a different problem. The teacher must strive to know as much as possible about these children: their hobbies, games, friends, home environment, favorite radio programs, ambitions. Out of all this information may come the clue that will result in the reading of a first book. If that book is wisely selected by the teacher and enjoyed by the student, others will be requested. With direction from the teacher and a wealth of available materials, this problem can soon be solved.

Some biographical materials available for use in the middle grades will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

The Bobbs-Merrill Co. (Indianapolis 7, Indiana), publish a series of biographies especially designed for the boys and girls of the middle grades: *The Childhood of Famous Americans Series*. There are presently 82 volumes in this series, and a few are added each year. Each volume contains about 190 pages, many silhouette drawings, and is printed in a large, easy-to-read type. The volumes sell for \$1.75 each.

Sixty-five volumes in this series are also available in a special *School Edition*. The *School Edition* volumes offer a superior mechanical make-up which meets all requirements in standards and specifications for school usage—they are McCain side sewed and are bound in washable cloth. The *School Edition* volumes are furnished and sold solely for school usage. The catalog list price for each volume is \$1.48; the net school price, f.o.b. publisher, is \$1.11.

The following partial list, including some of the perennial best sellers, will give some idea of the variety available in this series: Augusta Stevenson, *Abe Lincoln, Frontier Boy*; Aileen Parks, *Bedford Forrest, Boy on Horseback*; Miriam E. Mason, *Dan Beard, Boy Scout*; Bernice Bryant, *Dan Morgan, Boy of the Wilderness*; Ann Well,

Franklin Roosevelt, Boy of the Four Freedoms; Laura Long, *George Dewey, Vermont Boy*; Gertrude Hecker Winders, *Jim Bowie, Boy With a Hunting Knife*; William O. Steele, *John Sevier, Pioneer Boy*; Olive W. Burt, *John Wanamaker, Boy Merchant*; Jean Brown Wagoner, *Julia Ward Howe, Girl of Old New York*; Guernsey Van Riper, Jr., *Knut Rockne, Young Athlete*; Augusta Stevenson, *Molly Pitcher, Girl Patriot*; Dorothea J. Snow, *Raphael Semmes, Tidewater Boy*; Mabel Cleland Widdener, *Washington Irving, Boy of Old New York*; Bradford Smith, *William Bradford, Pilgrim Boy*; and Katharine E. Wilkie, *Zack Taylor, Young Rough and Ready*.

The most carefully graded of all the biography series is that of the Wheeler Publishing Company (Chicago 16): *The American Adventure Series*. Advertised as the "only graded corrective reading program," these books are issued under the editorial direction of Dr. Emmett A. Betts of the Reading Clinic at Temple University. A Handbook on Corrective Reading and Teacher's Guide Books have been prepared for each volume in the series. These are suggestive, practical and helpful for the busy teacher and especially so for the beginning teacher who lacks experience with slow readers. Many teachers have had unusual success with these volumes in the junior and senior high, using them with students who were totally unable to read the materials expected of them. Good readers in the third and fourth grades, as these writers know from personal observation, literally eat them up!

While some of the volumes are more historical than biographical, and all of them are highly fictionalized to catch reader interest, their unusual merits justify the inclusion of all of them here. These books, which list for \$1.72 each, are planned on five reading levels. "A" is the easiest, "E" the most difficult.

Level A: *Friday, the Arapaho Indian; Squanto and the Pilgrims*. Level B: *Pilot Jack Knight; Alec Majors; Chief Black Hawk*. Level C: *Cowboys and Cattle Trails; Kit Carson*. Level D: *Buffalo Bill; Wild Bill Hickok; Davy Crockett*. Level E: *Daniel Boone; Fur Trappers of the Old West; The Rush for Gold; John Paul Jones*.

Under the editorial direction of Frances Cavanah, Row, Peterson and Co. (Evanston, Illinois) have sponsored something different in biographical materials for children. The *Real People* series is made up of 48 biographical sketches, each 36 pages long, bound in paper, and very attractively illustrated. There is a complete Picture Calendar at the close of each

biography, and for every period in history there is a readable map. The biographies are boxed and sold in groups of six, each box including biographies of people grouped around a central topic or period in history. The price per box is \$2.48.

Group I, "Explorers and Early Settlers," includes biographies of Columbus, De Soto, La Salle, John Smith, Peter Stuyvesant, and Roger Williams. Group II, "Leaders of the American Revolution," is made up of sketches of Abigail Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, John Paul Jones, Father Serra, and George Washington. Group III, "Leaders in Western Expansion," treats Ah-Yo-Ka, the daughter of Sequoya, John Jacob Astor, Daniel Boone, Zebulon Pike, Rufus Putnam, and Narcissa Whitman. Group IV, "Leaders Since 1860," consists of Jane Adams, George Washington Carver, Thomas Alva Edison, James Jerome Hill, Robert E. Lee, and Abraham Lincoln. Group V, "Ancient and Medieval Heroes," deals with a period about which we have little biographical material of a simple reading level, and includes Ikhnaton of Egypt, Alexander the Great, Alfred the Great, Caesar Augustus, Charlemagne, and Marco Polo. Group VI is devoted to these "Leaders in an Awakening World": Akbar of India, Queen Elizabeth, Johann Gutenberg, Prince Henry, Joan of Arc, and Leonardo da Vinci. Group VII, "Leaders Who Changed Europe and South America," includes Peter the Great, James Watt, Frederick the Great, Lafayette, Captain James Cook, and Simon Bolivar. The last group, VIII, is called "Heroes of Modern Times," and the six people included are: Benjamin Disraeli, Florence Nightingale, David Livingstone, Marconi, Sun Yat-Sen, and Roald Amundsen.

The Wilcox and Follett Co. (Chicago 5) has published three unusually beautiful and interesting biographies, by a single author. Clara Ingram Judson has written widely for young people, and in the presentation of these three books, she has made a valuable contribution to young people's understanding of the past. *George Washington, Leader of the People*; *Thomas Jefferson, Champion of the People*; and *Abraham Lincoln, Friend of the People*, are tremendously fine books (\$3.50 each). Good readers in the fifth and sixth grades should have no trouble reading them. They represent juvenile biography at its best.

The Abingdon Press (Nashville 2, Tennessee) has introduced a new series of biographies for young readers known as the Makers of America series. Well written, in an easy-to-read style, and

well illustrated, these books sell for a dollar and a half each and should find a good response among children in the middle grades. Those already published include: *Christopher Columbus, Discoverer*, by Alberta Powell Graham; *Lafayette, Friend of America*, by Alberta Powell Graham; *William Penn, Founder and Friend*, by Virginia Haviland; *Thomas Alva Edison, Inventor*, by Ruth Cromer Weir; *Leif Ericson, Explorer*, by Ruth Cromer Weir; *Sam Houston, Fighter and Leader*, by Frances F. Wright; *George Washington, First President*, by Elsie Ball.

The Houghton Mifflin Co. (2 Park St., Boston 7) are the publishers of three of the most beautiful biographies in print. The distinctive feature of these three books is the Lynd Ward illustrations: numerous, large, many of them in color. They have to be seen to be appreciated. But if the illustrations are superb, the text of each is far better than the average. Boys and girls who do not usually like to read will be intrigued by the illustrations and later find themselves reading, and enjoying, the text. The books are: *America's Ethan Allen*, by Stewart Holbrook (\$2.50); *America's Robert E. Lee*, by Henry Steele Commager (\$3.00); and *America's Paul Revere*, by Esther Forbes (\$3.00).

Aladdin Books (55 Fifth Avenue, New York 3) publish the American Heritage Series. Not all of these books are biographies, but all are excellent reading for young people. They are a little more difficult than some of the books discussed in this article, but good sixth graders should read them without difficulty. They are well and interestingly printed, and sell for \$1.75.

Among the biographies are *The Story of Eli Whitney*, by Jean Lee Latham; *The Magnificent Mariner, An Early Story of John Paul Jones*, by Frederick A. Lane; *The Fighting Quaker*, and *Jed Smith, Trail Blazer*, both by Frank Latham; and *Cochise of Arizona*, by Oliver La Farge.

Henry Holt and Co. (383 Madison Avenue, New York 17) have for many years published outstanding juvenile biographies. Among their recent books, apparently suited to this age group, are the following. *Henry Wadsworth Longfellow: His Life*; and *Stephen Foster: His Life* (\$2.00 each), both by Catherine Owens Pearce. Children in the middle grades frequently develop an affection for the poetry of Longfellow and the songs of Foster. These biographies, then, meet with a ready-made interest. John Cournos and Sybil Norton have done very well at the difficult

task of making Roger Williams understandable to young people in their *Pilgrimage to Freedom* (\$2.50). Some forthcoming, or recently published, Holt biographies that we have not yet seen are: *John James Audubon* and *Louisa May Alcott*, both by Catherine Owens Peare; *Candidate for Truth, The Story of Daniel Webster* and *John Adams, Independence Forever*, both by

Cournos and Norton. Over a period of many years Holt has also published good biographies of many outstanding figures in the world of music. It has been a number of years since the present writers have seen any of these last mentioned books, but if their memory is correct most of them are for boys and girls in the junior-senior high age level.

PROBLEMS AND THE COLLEGE SURVEY

(Continued from page 170)

of 1896. What were the grievances of the farmers of the 'eighties and 'nineties? Were these grievances real? Were the farmers the victims of their own mismanagement, or of the new industrial order? To what extent would political measures remedy their condition? Would the adoption of the Populist program in 1892 or the victory of Bryan in 1896 have solved their problems? Or would these things have meant the economic chaos predicted by their opponents?

VIII. *The Consolidation of Industry*. Did the consolidation of industry and railroads into huge corporate combinations benefit the people with their economies, or did they endanger the economic freedom of the people by limiting or destroying competition? Would the great economic development of the nation have been possible without the growth of trusts and combinations? What harm was done by their formation? What efforts to control them were made by state and federal governments before 1900? Were these efforts justified?

IX. *Progressivism and the Regulation of Industry and Railroads*. Contrast the policies of Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson on the question of the regulation of business. How does each square with the Progressive philosophy? Were Roosevelt's "square deal" and "New Nationalism" really Progressive, or only a "half-loaf" policy as LaFollette claimed? Was Wilson's "New Freedom" in keeping with the principles of Progressivism and the traditions of the Democratic party? How effective was each of them in curbing the economic excesses of their day?

X. *The New Deal*. Was the New Deal the offspring of alien radical and revolutionary philosophies, or was it the outgrowth of earlier native American reform movements? How original was

it with Roosevelt and his advisers? How did it compare with the policies of earlier administrations in dealing with economic crises? Did it destroy the American way of capitalism and democracy, or did it preserve it? How successful was it in coping with the problems of the depression and reforming the American economy?

XI. *Latin America and the Monroe Doctrine*. Were the Olney Doctrine, the Roosevelt Corollary, and the "big stick" the natural outgrowths of the principles of the Monroe Doctrine, or were they masks for the development of American imperialism in the Western Hemisphere? How were these developments received by Latin Americans? What criticisms arose in the United States? To what extent did events justify this expansion of the Monroe Doctrine between 1890 and 1927 and the later recession from it?

XII. *The United States and the First World War*. What were the real motives of the United States in entering World War I? Was the submarine campaign the real cause of its entrance into the war or was it Wilsonian idealism, Allied propaganda, economic interest, or a real or imagined threat to American security?

XIII. *The United States and the League of Nations*. In rejecting the Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations, was the United States safeguarding its essential interests, or reacting against what many believed to be an excess of idealism? Did the League constitute a great threat to American independence of action, as its opponents believed? How far was Wilson's idealism thwarted at the Peace Conference? What role did party politics play at home? Was the rejection of the Treaty and the League a short-sighted policy which contributed to the international anarchy leading to World War II?

Historiography and the Teaching of History

Michael Chiappetta

FOR several years I have been teaching the history of education to prospective teachers and have been impressed with the fairly stereotyped responses of students to the study of history, whether it be the history of education, of governments, or of ideas. The first indication of this reaction is student attitude toward the text; invariably students regard the history text as a sort of gospel from which all knowledge stems, and more importantly, on which all examinations should rightfully and honorably be based. Perhaps it is only a reflection of the times, but I have the feeling that students are over-sensitive to the pursuit of orthodoxy;¹ they appear to want to give the "right" answers and are not at all concerned about the basis of "rightness." But that consideration is not the province of this paper.

There is no point in reiterating the cliché that our teaching of history is too much concerned with names and dates, but I must at least mention this in order to point up the opposite condition involved in the almost total omission of historiography. In these days when various pressures are being exerted, and successfully, for the increased study of history, this is a profitable time to examine the product which goes by that name. Undoubtedly some of the pressures exerted on behalf of the study of history are rooted in the belief that there is some positive and high correlation between the study of history and the cultivation and inculcation of national loyalty and patriotism. I shall not attempt to analyze the concepts which undergird this interesting

correlation, but wish to turn instead to an examination of history as a discipline and an instrument for increasing understanding.

Historians are well aware of the fact that historiography is the basic science of our discipline; in one light it can be described as the set of "rules of the game" for the writing of history. The use of the word "writing" is the crux of this paper. Almost universally in the literature, and practically without exception in the classroom, historiography is treated as a study of the theory of the *writing* of history. It might well be that the word historiography itself is so forbidding that its inclusion in the early study of history is precluded, but our ingenuity should be able to provide us with a "popular" substitute. The thesis of this paper is that an understanding of historiography is indispensable to the intelligent reading and use of history, if not to the existence of history as a discipline.

THE NATURE OF HISTORY

What can historiography do to strengthen the study of history? I believe the study of history should begin with a clarification of the nature of written history. It seems reasonable to hold that students of high school level can start their study of history by considering what it is they are reading. I believe we greatly underestimate the power of high school students when we assume that they would not be able to grasp the idea that written history is written by *someone*, someone with a point of view, someone who could not possibly record *all* the events of the past, someone who had to *select* the information which he has included in his narrative, someone who connected the events into a web of "facts" which tell *a* story of the past. In other words, the beginning of a study of history should be concerned with the techniques involved in the writing of history which must be kept in mind by the

"Before we are carried away by our happiness in the resurgence of the study of history," the author comments, "we should take mental note of the pressing need to protect history from too limited use as a propaganda instrument." How this danger may be avoided and the maximum value realized from the study of history is the subject discussed in this article by Dr. Chiappetta, an assistant professor of education at Pennsylvania State University.

¹I use the word "pursuit" in order to establish the hypothesis that orthodoxy itself changes so rapidly that one has great difficulty holding on to it.

reader. When the student of history comes to the point that he realizes that the history he is reading is not *the* history of a subject but is only *a* history, then he can use history intelligently. Certainly the discussion of the construction of history must include the range of concepts which have held prominence among historians and according to which some of our standard historical works have been constructed; also attention must be paid to the process of selection of events to be related in a given history, and there should be a rigorous examination of the tremendous range of hypotheses, frames of reference or biases which have governed the writing of history.

An introductory version of historiography for the readers or consumers of history should include some discussion of the treatment of data, the establishment of reliability and validity of sources and accounts. Needless to say the whole project would be meaningless without an investigation into the process of generalization and conclusion which various historians have used in narrating their findings. In all cases, however, the teacher has to keep reminding himself that he is not especially trying to prepare future historians, although he secretly may be hoping that some of the brighter students will be attracted to the field; the primary responsibility of the history teacher is to produce intelligent consumers of written history.

The obvious question before us is "What is intelligent reading of history?" Perhaps we can clarify by first stating what it is not. Reading a single version of history as though it were the only, the true, the unimpeachable, all-inclusive story of the past is unintelligent. Accepting a version of the past regardless of conflicting evidence concerning the same past is unintelligent. Let us turn to the positive. Since it is impossible to record, and also to read, a *complete* account of the past, the intelligent reader knows that *any* written history has distinct characteristics: (1) the historian had to select the items which he included, and did not include, in the narrative; (2) unless the history thus produced is totally unorganized, the historian had some *scheme*,

some pattern, some frame of reference, some hypothesis on which he based his selection; (3) there are some rules of the game regarding the treatment of data, especially concerning the reliability and validity of the sources used; (4) generalizations and conclusions should have some relationship to the evidences set forth in the narrative. Finally, it is the responsibility of the reader, whether he likes it or not, to develop the skill to evaluate the history for internal consistency and a reasonable point of view.

It is precisely in the last statement that we find the challenge to history today. There is an immense danger that in our zeal to expose children to "history" we shall make it impossible for them to become intelligent consumers of history. If we fall into the trap of supporting the study of *any single* brand of history, we shall have prostituted history to abominable use as propaganda. Perhaps we could take some pleasure out of the fact that it would not be the first time that it would have happened.

Before we are carried away by our happiness in the resurgence of the study of history, we should take mental note of the pressing need to protect history from too limited use as a propaganda instrument. The threat of orthodoxy in history actually could result in a temporary disappearance of history as the discipline we now know. George Orwell's "1984" presents a frightening picture of the possibilities of political control over history, a good portion of which already has been transformed into reality in Soviet Russia.²

There are two specific things which teachers can do at this time in order to make history a meaningful and useful part of the equipment of our future citizens. First, we can change the name of historiography, and second, we must include it in the teaching of history from the very beginning and guarantee that it permeates the reading and discussion of our students.

²Interesting example: After Stalin's death a picture of Stalin and Malenkov, taken some time before, was altered and reprinted to show Malenkov closer to Stalin.

Who are the critical thinkers? In what matrix are they formed? At what age do they first appear? What is the responsibility of the school in fostering their development? The importance of these questions can be gauged by the fact that the success of a democracy is predicated, not upon an elite minority of critical thinkers, but upon a citizenry in which they constitute the rule rather than the exception. (Quoted from *Skills in Social Studies*, the Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1953, p. 45)

Notes and News

NEA-NCSS Relationships

(By Merrill F. Hartshorn)

Members of the National Council for the Social Studies will note that on all publications of the NCSS, on our official letterhead, in our official journal *Social Education*, and in connection with all our activities, there appears along with the name of the NCSS the statement "A Department of the National Education Association." We believe that most of our members realize the value and importance of our affiliation with the NEA. As one of its contributions, the NEA furnishes office space without any rental charge to the headquarters office of the NCSS and also supplies the basic furniture and fixtures in the office. From a dollar-and-cents point of view, this constitutes a real contribution every year to our program. The NEA also assists the department with some editorial assistance on Yearbooks and Bulletins, library resources, press service, accounting and banking facilities, and consultative services. In connection with NEA publications and leaflets and the *NEA Journal*, it gives publicity to the department and its work. In many ways the NEA integrates the work of its departments into its total program. The fact, too, that we are a department of the NEA increases our standing and prestige with the educational profession and the general public. Being a Department of the National Education Association with our offices in NEA headquarters enables us to keep in touch with the many other groups here at headquarters who, like our organization, are working for a better educational program in our schools.

The NCSS is one of 29 departments of the NEA. In the main, these departments are concerned with problems of classroom instruction, materials of instruction, the curriculum and the administration of the school program. Through the programs of all these departments a substantial contribution is made each year to the educational profession, the welfare of children and youth, and to the over-all program of the National Education Association. It would take considerable space just to list all the contributions made by the departments to the NEA program. In addition, departments located at NEA headquarters make their personnel available to

assist the NEA with problems and inquiries that fall in their particular sphere of work. The departments are proud of the contributions they are making to the work and over-all objectives of the National Education Association and look forward to such continued association in the future.

Because of the many contributions of the NEA to its departments, members of the NCSS benefit directly through membership services and publications. At present a substantial majority of the members of the NCSS are also members of the NEA and in addition to working for the NCSS they support the NEA and its program. Every teacher should belong both to the NEA and one of its specialized departments. We urge all NCSS members who do not belong to the NEA to join at once.

At present, the NEA headquarters building is very badly crowded, and operations are scattered through five different buildings. Working conditions are far from desirable. Many of you will be hearing, if word has not already reached you, of the special NEA Building Fund Drive to erect a new headquarters building. The need is great and this drive merits your support. We should have an NEA Center here in Washington that will be a living monument to our profession—a building that will give our profession the prestige it richly merits in the minds of our fellow countrymen and in the eyes of the world.

We should work together as a united profession dedicated to the task before us. Join and support the work of the NEA and of your specialized department, the National Council for the Social Studies.

Vigo County Council

The Vigo County Council for the Social Studies (Indiana) met in Terre Haute on October 28 and January 26. At the October meeting, J. A. Mayden, Educational Director of the Federal Penitentiary, spoke on "Future Prisoners." The meeting was chaired by Wayne Coltharp, president of the council. The January meeting was a joint session with Phi Delta Kappa and was chaired by Robert Seltzer, Indiana State Teachers College. The program was a panel discussion on "The Licensing of Social Studies Teachers in Indiana" with E. J. Clark, Edward

Ford, Walter Marks and Wayne Coltharp as panel members. Roy Hulfachor, president of Pi Gamma Mu, and William Powell of Phi Delta Kappa served as student members of the panel. Ethel M. Ray, Terre Haute, was program chairman for both these meetings. E.M.R.

Northwestern Pennsylvania

The Sixth Annual Conference of the Northwestern Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies was held in Edinboro on April 8. During the afternoon there were four section meetings as follows "Problems of the Near East," with Walter Rusterholtz of Erie as the speaker. Merle Dear-dorff of Warren spoke at another section meeting on "The Pennsylvania Indians During the French and Indian Wars." These first two section meetings were planned primarily for secondary school teachers. For the elementary teachers Loretta E. Klee, Cornell University, spoke to one group on "Improving Reading in the Social Studies—What Can We Do from Day to Day?" The topic for the other section was "Educating Today's Children for Tomorrow's World Through the Use of Maps" with Zoe Thralls, University of Pittsburgh, as speaker.

At the evening dinner meeting, Stanley E. Dimond, University of Michigan, and past president of the National Council for the Social Studies, spoke on "The Freedom to Learn and the Freedom to Teach." L.V.H.

WANTED

Copies of the following publications—Year-books and issues of *Social Education*—are urgently needed to meet requests from libraries and individuals who desire complete files of NCSS publications. If you have any of these publications and do not need or use them now, won't you send them to NCSS headquarters office, 1201 Sixteenth St., Washington 6, D.C.? The publications we need most are as follows:

Social Education—issues of March 1952, February 1953, March 1953, and November 1953.

7th Yearbook *Education Against Propaganda*

12th Yearbook *Social Studies in the Elementary School*

13th Yearbook *Teaching Critical Thinking*

15th Yearbook *Adapting Instruction in the Social Studies to Individual Differences*

16th Yearbook *Democratic Human Relations*

18th Yearbook *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*

All contributions will be greatly appreciated.

NCSS 1954 and 1955 Annual Meetings

The National Council for the Social Studies will hold its 34th Annual Meeting November 25-27, 1954, in Indianapolis with headquarters at the Claypool Hotel. Willard J. Gambold, Board of Education, Indianapolis Public Schools, is serving as General Chairman of Local Arrangements. He has already organized his working committees. They are beginning to make plans for an interesting and rewarding program. Edwin R. Carr, School of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado, and First Vice President of the NCSS is the program chairman. He will welcome suggestions for topics and speakers.

The 35th Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held in New York City on November 24-26, 1955. Headquarters will be at the Statler Hotel.

Allegheny County Council

The Allegheny County Council for the Social Studies (Pennsylvania) is a dynamic group with plans for four meetings this school year. They are publishing an interesting newsletter called *The Hypo*. At their November meeting they elected officers as follows: President, James Kehew, West View High School, Pittsburgh; Vice President, Gregory Spanos, Hampton High School, Pittsburgh; and Secretary-Treasurer, Esther O. Campbell, West Allegheny Junior High School. At this meeting Joe Scotti of Robinson High School staged a United Nations Mock General Assembly at his school. The President has appointed a number of working committees: a program committee, a committee on source materials, and a committee that is to gather material and prepare a "Field Trip Handbook" that will help suggest places teachers may take students on field trips. At their February meeting the discussion centered on ideas and materials for testing attitudes and concepts. J.K.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies, teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Ethel M. Ray, Luther V. Hendricks, and James Kehew.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

Freedom to Read

Many Americans are becoming increasingly concerned by the extent to which passion and prejudice, rather than dispassionate appraisal and reasoned judgments, are influencing public attitudes on questions of civic and national policy. This takes many forms and is frequently reflected in the activities of both private and public groups which would subvert our constitutionally guaranteed freedom of speech and press by restricting our freedom to read. We accept as a necessary evil the judicious censorship of indecent literature, but in accordance with the best of our American traditions we must vigorously reject the censorship of ideas and recognize that the usual target of such censorship is unorthodoxy; the result, totalitarian uniformity.

The Freedom to Read is a statement drafted nearly a year ago at the Westchester Conference of the American Library Association and the American Book Publishers Council, and subsequently endorsed by other organizations, including the NEA's Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education. The writing of this statement was motivated by the many efforts being made in this country to "remove books from sale, to censor textbooks, to label 'controversial' books, to distribute lists of 'objectionable' books or authors, and to purge libraries." Such attempts, the statement continues, "rest on a denial of the fundamental premise of democracy: that the ordinary citizen, by exercising his critical judgment, will accept the good and reject the bad."

The Freedom to Read is a document that clearly and unequivocally reaffirms our traditional freedom of the press with its correlative freedom to read. Written as a policy statement for the guidance and support of librarians and publishers, it is a timeless document having implications for all engaged in education and citizenship. (Copies of this statement are available from the American Library Association, 50 East Huron St., Chicago 11, or from the American Book Publishers Council, 2 West 46th St., New York 36.)

One question not explicitly considered in *The Freedom to Read* is whether youth of school age,

because of their lesser maturity and experience, should be granted the same freedom as adults. More specifically, should school authorities, in so far as it is within their jurisdiction, protect students from readings which, in the words of a TV panelist we recently heard, might "poison" youthful minds?

Perhaps no better statement has been written on this question than the policy statement of the NCSS published in the May, 1953, issue of *Social Education*, "Freedom to Learn and Freedom to Teach" (pp. 217-19). This document admirably stresses the correlative responsibilities of teachers, and fittingly concludes with, "The National Council for the Social Studies has faith that when young people have freedom to learn from competent teachers who are free to teach, they will, as a group, make decisions that support the values associated with our democratic republic."

It is our hope in editing this department to draw attention to as many different types of publications as possible. Some are edited for school use, others for the general public; but for whatever purpose they may be written, we feel confident that if students, guided by their teacher, have experience in critically appraising these materials our youth will be better fortified against the poison of subversion and better fitted to exercise the responsibilities that are inherent in the freedom to read.

Public Affairs Pamphlets

The 28-page, 25-cent Public Affairs Pamphlets (22 East 38th St., New York 16) have been widely read by the general public and have long proved valuable as instructional materials in schools and colleges. With the release of *From School to Job: Guidance for Minority Youth*, the Public Affairs Committee publishes its 200th pamphlet. For 18 years the Committee has set a fine example in promoting a type of journalism that brings expert, yet adequately simplified, analyses of pertinent subjects to a wide audience. And the teacher who wants to make his teaching more interesting would be well advised to note how the Public Affairs Pamphlets develop interest without resort

to emotionalism by making generous use of case studies and other descriptive material.

Ann Tanneyhill, who has been active in the National Urban League and the National Vocational Guidance Association, provides guidance to Negroes and other minority youth in *From School to Job*. She reports a general improvement, particularly since World War II, in employment opportunities for minority youth, but points out that if these young people are to find employment commensurate with their abilities and interests they must have competent educational and vocational guidance.

In *Medical Research May Save Your Life!* Gilbert Cant, medical editor of *Time* magazine since 1949, reviews the more significant advances in medical science in recent years and relates these advances to the contributions of organized medical research. But much remains to be done, and while we are currently spending about one third of a cent per day per capita on medical research, we should spend about three times that amount, according to Mr. Cant, if we are fully to utilize our resources in the fight against disease.

The controversy over immigration policy has been a prominent political issue especially since the passage of the so-called McCarran Act over President Truman's veto in 1952. *The Stranger at Our Gate—America's Immigration Policy*, written by Senator Hubert Humphrey, is an effort to analyze the issues, destroy what Humphrey calls the five myths of immigration, and make recommendations for a new immigration law that will erase the prejudice that has been written into our immigration laws since 1882.

Economic Problems

Since the relaxation of price controls after the war, the cost of living has been headline news at least once a month when the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor announces its latest estimate of the change in the cost of living. To most of us, the process of estimating the cost of living is quite mysterious, though we may have noted reference to the Consumer Price Index—whatever that is. Through Bulletin No. 1140, however, the Bureau of Labor Statistics discusses *The Consumer Price Index* (Supt. of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25; 34 p. 20 cents), what it is, how it is compiled, and its uses and limitations. The text is as non-technical as is consistent with accuracy, and presents a clear picture of the nature of the Price Index. This

simplified analysis is definitely worthy of attention in economics and modern problems classes because the increased use of price change data in collective bargaining and in wage agreements has made an understanding of the Index essential for workers and pertinent for others.

Pension Plans Under Collective Bargaining (Supt. of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25; Bulletin No. 1147, Bureau of Labor Statistics. 23 p. 20 cents) is somewhat technical and not recommended for light reading, but does provide background information on a phase of labor-management relations that is receiving ever-increasing attention.

At this writing, the question of lowering tariffs and continuing the reciprocal trade program is once again in the headlines and will undoubtedly continue to remain there at least as long as the Congress remains in session. The December, 1953, issue of *Platform* reviews the background of our tariff problem under the title, *The U. S. Tariff: Time for a New Appraisal?* (Newsweek Club Bureau, 152 West 42nd St., New York 36; 22 p. 25 cents).

The Foundation for Economic Education, Irvington-on-Hudson, New York, will send you upon request a bibliography of its publications, many of which are free for single copies. Included are leaflets, pamphlets, booklets, and books. Not all of their titles are strictly in the field of economics, but in that category are such titles as: *Price Supports* (free), *Two Paths to Collectivism* (free), *Where Karl Marx Went Wrong* (free), *Morals and the Welfare State* (free), *Public Housing* (free), *The Pension Idea* (50 cents), and *The Tariff Idea* (50 cents).

The Education Department of the National Association of Manufacturers (14 West 49th St., New York 20) has several catalogues listing printed and visual materials useful for educational purposes. Among these are: *Educational Aids for High Schools*, *Educational Aids for Colleges*, *Catalog of Materials on Education-Industry Cooperation*, and *Motion Picture Catalog*. Many of the printed materials are available free and in classroom quantities.

The Economic Research Department of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States (Washington 6) publishes numerous pamphlets on economic subjects. Among their 50-cent pamphlets, ranging in length from 26 to 34 pages are: *Free Markets and Free Men*, *A Program for Expanding Jobs and Production*, *The Guaranteed Wage*, and *Small Business: Its Role and Its Problems*.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Chalkboard Utilization. 15 minutes; black-and-white; sale, \$80. For rental rates, apply at your nearest educational film library. Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

This month's motion picture selected for special review is a departure from our regular practice in that it is especially designed for teachers rather than for students. Created by Dr. Walter A. Wittich of the University of Wisconsin, this new film provides an excellent answer to the question, "How can I make fuller use of the chalkboard in daily classroom work?"

Chalkboard Utilization summarizes and presents examples of good teaching through the use of comic drawings, the template method, the grid method, the pattern method, and the hidden drawing method. The first sequence points out such basic ideas as avoidance of glare through proper window shade adjustment, proper care of chalkboard surfaces, control of letter height so that printing is clearly visible to all, and the use of erasers and chalk so as to gain maximum contrast and visibility.

Sequences of the film are sufficiently detailed so that techniques are easily understood. A teacher is seen using stick figures in a safety lesson. Emphasis is on building assurance that any teacher by observing very simple instructions can quickly and interestingly add to the effectiveness of his teaching. The use of templates—rigid material cut into appropriate design from which needed basic illustrations may be accurately drawn—is shown through lessons in geometry and chemistry, but the principles can easily be transferred to the social studies. The grid method explains how small drawings may be accurately enlarged. The pattern method introduces a technique which employs a window shade which has been perforated in a basic pattern permitting map outlines to be quickly placed upon the board.

Throughout the film emphasis is given to the concept that pupil and teacher together should develop quickly and easily those few important chalkboard techniques that relate to and, therefore, increase the understanding of classroom subject content ideas.

Pageant of America Filmstrips

(Reviewed by William G. Tyrrell)

The Yale University Press Film Service (New Haven, Connecticut) has had a distinguished record in presenting visual history. Its 15 volumes in the *Pageant of America* constitute a wealth of pictorial Americana. The 15 silent films in the *Yale Chronicles of America* were pioneering productions in realistically dramatizing history. The most recent plan for putting America's past before the eyes of students is *The Pageant of America Filmstrips*, a series of 30 black-and-white 35mm filmstrips.

The Pageant of America in the new medium will, when completed, provide an extremely broad approach to the development of the United States. The entire series will touch on the main aspects of our political, economic, social, artistic, literary, and technical history. Titles may be purchased individually or in the complete set.

The initial release, consisting of the first six strips, covers the period of exploration, colonization, and early life in the New World. "The Story of the American Indian" highlights characteristics of the major cultural areas. "European Explorers Discover a New World" traces the activities and routes of the important mariners. "Spain Establishes a Great Empire" surveys the exploits and conflicts of the Spanish adventurers. "The Rise and Fall of New France" views the record of French missionaries and *voyageurs*. "The English Colonies in North America" describes the establishment of each of the 13 colonies. "Life in Colonial America" reveals economic pursuits and social surroundings along the Atlantic seaboard.

The pictorial presentation of each subject is set forth in approximately 36 views of the 40-frame filmstrips. The material consists of portraits, maps, and numerous scenic views. These serve to give a well-rounded account of each subject. For the most part, this graphic material should be helpful for developing understanding and interest. William H. Hartley, authority on audio visual materials in the social studies, has prepared "Teachers Guides" suggesting ways for using each title with the greatest effectiveness.

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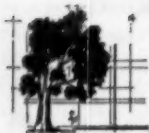
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Although these film strips may be judged as useful, satisfactory teaching aids, certain questions, however, must be raised about their organization and production. The use of extremes of artistic techniques is not entirely suitable for viewers inexperienced in interpreting artistic conventions. Crude drawings are combined with heroic canvases and photographs are next to older line engravings. Pictorial representations originating over a period of centuries were selected to depict the subjects. In addition to the confusion of styles, there is also the problem of authenticity. As readers are entitled to a bibliography giving sources of written information, so viewers require a bibliography for visual materials. Such a bibliography would tell when and by whom the pictorial item was made and why the scene shows what it does. Only a few sources are given for the materials in this series.

Teachers considering purchase of these filmstrips will want to measure carefully their value as teaching aids compared with other available materials priced less expensively.

Other Filmstrips

Australian News and Information Bureau, 636 Fifth Ave., New York 20.

The Geography of Australia. 30 frames; black-and-white; sale, \$1.50. Covers the physical geography of Australia, including the topography, rainfall, vegetation, and natural resources of the island-continent. The features shown in the maps are illustrated by examples of the terrain in various regions. The filmstrip is accompanied by a comprehensive teacher's guide.

Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 1630 Springfield Ave., Maplewood, New Jersey.

Knights of the Round Table. Set of two filmstrips; sale, \$7.50. The first strip is in black-and-white and gives the historical and social background for the period of King Arthur. The second strip is in color and reproduces scenes from the MGM feature film "Knights of the Round Table."

Pictorial Events Filmstrips, 597 Fifth Ave., New York 17.

World History Series. Sale, \$3.50 each. Consisting of stills from feature length motion pictures. Titles include "The Vikings," "Life in Ancient Egypt," "Arabian Culture," "Elizabethan England," "France and the French Revolution," "David and Bathsheba," "The Industrial Revolution," "Salome."

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

Community Helpers Series. Set of six, full-color filmstrips; sale, \$30. Titles are "The Policeman," "The Mailman," "The Doctor," "The Fireman," "The Bus Driver," "The Grocer."

Motion Pictures

Australian News and Information Bureau, 636 Fifth Ave., New York 20.

Our Neighbor—Australia. 10 minutes; rental, \$1.50. Shows two Pakistani students studying in Australia under the Colombo Plan for Co-operative Economic Development in south and southeast Asia. Earnest students from neighboring countries are shown in Australian surroundings, examining problems of communication, learning how to rid crops of pests, how to control floods, and harness water for hydro-electric power, and how to improve the health of a nation's people.

American Automobile Association, 1712 G St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

The Talking Car. 13 minutes; color; rental, apply. A safe-walking motion picture for fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students. Gives a car's eye view of traffic safety rules which should be observed by every boy and girl.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

The Future of Scotland. 21 minutes; rental, \$2.50. Shows the industrial conditions of Scotland, the development of hydro-electric power. Explores the political attitudes to be found in Scotland today. Presents the views for and against Scotland's independence.

Man On Trial. 30 minutes; rental, \$3.75. Shows how British justice works through a story which deals with the crime of burglary. The burglar is caught, booked and brought to trial. The film emphasizes that every person is assured of a fair trial and a just and honest hearing.

Open House. 10 minutes; rental, \$1.50. A tour of several of England's old, country houses. Shows interior and exterior views of four which lie near London.

People's Palace. 13½ minutes; rental, \$2.50. A visit to Hampton Court Palace on the Thames. Included in the tour are the armory, Guard Room, tapestries, workrooms, galleries, and gardens.

The Silver Haul. 25 minutes; rental, \$3.75. A film on the herring industry, including making the haul, marketing, and management by the Herring Industry Board.

Turkey—Key to the Middle East. 20 minutes; rental, \$2.50. Covers the history of Turkey for the past 30 years and shows the changes effected by the political and social revolution under Kemal Atatürk. An analysis is made of Turkey's present industrial needs.

Films of the Nations, 62 West 45th St., New York 36.

Let's Look at New Hampshire. 13 minutes; rental; black-and-white, \$2.25; color, \$4.50. A résumé of New Hampshire history, geography, industry, agriculture. This is one of a series of films on the United States. Others in the series are *Let's Look at Florida* and *Let's Look at Michigan*.

Modern Talking Picture Service, Inc., 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Deep Roots. 39 minutes; color, free loan. The story of the paper industry in the South is told through the struggle of a young man to earn a living in the pine forests.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

Your Food. 13 minutes; sale, \$62.50. An elementary school film which combines live-action and animated puppets, with the voices and narration in rhyme. The film explains that food provides for energy, growth and repair, and discusses the nature and function of basic food elements.

A Japanese Fishing Village. 13 minutes; sale, \$62.50. Through the eyes of a Japanese fisherman we see the life of a family and a village in Japan. We see the fishermen at work, household activities, recreational activities, gardening, and a festival.

Picture Parade

An educational comic-type magazine called *Picture Parade* is now being published for elementary school students by the publishers of *Classics Illustrated*. *Picture Parade* is published monthly during the school year, each issue being scheduled for release in time for special sessions, holidays, and other calendar events. Typical issues of this magazine during the current year have featured "Andy's Atomic Adventure," and "Around the World With the U.N." *Picture Parade* is sold on a subscription basis only for classroom groups. Subscriptions cost 75 cents per year for groups of 20 or more, or 80 cents for subscriptions for groups of less than 20. Inquiries should be addressed to the publishers, Gilberton Company, Inc., 101 Fifth Ave., New York 3.

Recordings

The 1954 edition of the *Annotated List of Phonograph Records* has just been issued by the Children's Reading Service, 1078 St. Johns Place, Brooklyn 13, New York. Edited by Dr. Warren S. Freeman of Boston University, this catalog presents more than 1000 carefully chosen recordings from many record manufacturers, arranged by subject areas and grade groups. Copies may be obtained for ten cents in coin or stamps to cover postage and handling.



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Another listing of phonograph records is contained in a publication called "Listing of Educational Recordings, Filmstrips, and Equipment for More Effective Learning," available upon request from Educational Services, 1730 E. St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Television

On January 15th the Michigan State College at East Lansing became the third noncommercial television station in the United States. Operating on UHF Channel 60, the station will bring 42 hours of programming every week to TV viewers within the 65 mile radius of the station's signal. Among the types of programs being telecast are "Symphony Notebook," "Let's Visit School," "Curtain Going Up," "Driver Education and Traffic Safety."

Seattle has received its Construction Permit from the FCC and expects to have its educational television station on the air well before the beginning of the next school year. The University of Washington will be their licensee for the new educational outlet.

St. Louis' educational television station is now telecasting lessons to the schools on a closed

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circuit basis. The purpose of these experimental programs is to provide an opportunity to evaluate and plan the type of programming to be conducted when the ETV station goes on the air this spring.

Radio Today

The National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters (1771 N. St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) has recently prepared a factual report on the ways in which the American family today relies upon the radio for information and entertainment. The brochure which reports the findings of the study is entitled "The Importance of Radio in Television Areas Today" and it is based upon 4,985 personal interviews conducted during 1953. The survey attempted to find out: Who listens to radio? Where do they listen? When do they listen? Why do they listen? What do they think of radio today?

The study concludes that 88 out of every 100 people in the area studied listen to the radio sometime during the week. Among an adult population of 61,600,000 in the area, 94.5 percent have one or more home radio sets in working order; 32.4 percent have two radios and 22.8

percent have three to seven radios or more. The average listener listens for just under three hours a day. The study concludes that radio still possesses the unique advantage that it can entertain and inform almost everybody, almost everywhere, at any time without interfering with other activities.

Helpful Articles

- Lewin, William. "Knights of the Round Table." *Audio-Visual Guide* 20: 15-23; January 1954. A guide to the discussion of the Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer photoplay.
- Long, Harold M. "Developing A 'Time Sense' of History." *Journal of Education* 136: 50-53; November 1953. Some methods or devices "that work" in teaching a time sense in history.
- Martin, Leo, and Sweatt, Kealsey. "Tape Recordings, East As One, Two, Three." *NEA Journal* 43: 100-101; February 1954. A series of 11 photographs shows step-by-step methods of making tape recordings for classroom use.
- Praytor, F. Virginia. "Planning U.N. Trips in Advance." *NEA Journal* 43: 77-78; February 1954. An account of the ways in which Birmingham, Alabama pupils are prepared to get the most out of their visit to U.N. headquarters in New York City.
- Price, Irwin. "Enriching Our Curriculum With Pictures." *Journal of Education* 136: 105-107; January 1954. How one school helped students to improve their ability to read, take notes, and organize information from pictures.

Book Reviews

MAIN CURRENTS OF WESTERN THOUGHT: READINGS IN WESTERN EUROPEAN INTELLECTUAL HISTORY FROM THE MIDDLE AGES TO THE PRESENT. By Franklin Le Van Baumer. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1952. xvi + 699 p. \$7.50.

One who reviews books assumes a large responsibility. He is asked after a more or less thorough reading of the work in hand to pass judgment on what has taken the author an enormous amount of sweat, time, and tears to produce. He is, moreover, in a position of power; and there seems to be a human tendency for one with power to exercise it to full, if not to abuse it entirely. As a result, the reviewer often magnifies the trivial slip, glorifies his own acumen, and thinks up alternative ways in which the author might better have employed his time.

I hope to avoid the pitfalls of injustice into which reviewers so often tumble, and the chances are that I shall succeed in skirting them, for I have the highest regard for the volume before me.

In his introduction Professor Baumer makes his position amply clear. For him intellectual history is not the study of isolated ideas, but of clusters of ideas, the way they change from generation to generation and from age to age, the manner in which they are related to their social milieu, and the fashion in which they become objectified in institutions. Such study "throws a good deal of light upon the nature of man: man's limitations and potentialities, the way he adapts himself mentally to new situations. . . ." "Intellectual history can help us to become free men. We are not free so long as we live in the illusion that the ideas of our age, country, and interest group are absolute, for all times and places. . . . To become free, we must face the fact that ideas are relative to a particular time and group, that they are constantly undergoing change. We must then pass beyond this knowledge of historical relativism to an appreciation of the world views of past generations."

The clusters of ideas which Professor Baumer discerns in Western culture he organizes in a hierarchial fashion. At the apex there are the Age of Reason, the Age of Science, and the Age of Anxiety, which form the three major segments of the book. Under the first title, the author distinguishes the Medieval Christian World View, the Renaissance, and the Confessional Age, each

of which is further divided on the basis of subordinate "clusters." In the Age of Science, Professor Baumer sees the Scientific Revolution, the Enlightenment, and a Bourgeois Century. And in the Age of Anxiety, he denotes only "anxiety," although the book ends, as it begins, with a selection which preaches the seeking of comfort in revealed Christianity.

The clusters of ideas are illustrated by several short quotations from the great minds, which gives a mosaic rather than a monolithic impression—a device which sets this book off from its chief rival, *Introduction to Contemporary Civilization in the West*, which employs fewer and longer excerpts from the masters. Each of the sections is introduced by an explanatory essay by the author, which sets the stage for what is to follow, and an admonition is contained in the Preface to use the readings in conjunction with some history of the intellectual development of Western culture.

In general the selections are extremely judicious, but I have two dissenting comments. American writers are conspicuous for their absence, save for some *deplaces* like Whitehead, and this rather negates the contention that America is part of the Western cultural orbit. There is nothing from James, or Dewey, or Jefferson. Finally, I am not so pessimistic about our present age as Professor Baumer. There is more to it than just anxiety.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

OUT OF THESE ROOTS: THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF AN AMERICAN WOMAN. By Agnes E. Meyer. Boston, Mass.: Little Brown and Company, 1953. x + 385 p. \$4.00.

As I took this absorbing journey with Agnes Ernst Meyer through the sixty-seven years of her life, I was reminded of Plato's intriguing allegory about human character. He conceived of each of us as a chariot drawn by the steeds of passion and controlled by reason, the driver. The chariot ride on which we are taken in this book is a hectic one, for the steeds are filled with boundless energy and the driver is bold and sanguine. The road leads from the "artistic superstructure of society" to the "rotten timbers in its founda-

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tion." The result is an experience which is exhilarating, for it is a source of great satisfaction to share the adventures of a humanist, a liberal, a democrat—in fine, a great American woman.

Certain things are pretty well-known about Mrs. Meyer. She is the wife of the publisher of the *Washington Post*, the mother of five children, and as atomic a bundle of energy as one can hope to find. She has created time for such cultural achievements as writing a highly praised book on Chinese art, translating two of Thomas Mann's essays, and cementing warm friendships with many distinguished personalities. In addition, her reportorial ability has won wide acclaim for its fearless facing of the facts—no matter how unpleasant the conclusion. And, of late, her public addresses have analyzed frankly and realistically the disturbing tensions in American life.

A woman of passionate convictions and reasoned judgments, she has given us a testament that is at times an elaboration of the *odi et amo* theme. Her indignation is directed against religious intolerance, juvenile delinquency, sororities, AMA leadership, New Deal relief methods, and communism and fascism. She derogates the "rat-race" for the "bitch-goddess, success" because

of its complete disregard of moral, emotional, and cultural values. She warns us against our growing federal centralization with its mandarin caste bureaucracy. She is hostile to federal aid for parochial schools and national compulsory health insurance. But her greatest hatred is reserved for the bully. At the age of twelve she turned upon the neighborhood tough guy and said: "If you don't get out of here, I'll bust you in the nose." This attitude she has carried with her throughout life. No bully, no matter how high his political position, has been safe from the strokes of her pen and the lash of her tongue.

Her philosophy of life, inspired by the teachings of John Dewey, emphasizes intimate involvement in the life of the community. Interested in the highest human values, she has never lost sight of suffering humanity. Her many years of work on the local level has convinced her that many perplexing problems can be solved by a grass roots revival of community initiative. The first task before us, she urges, is to improve the public school system, since it is the "focus of community solidarity."

We close the book reluctantly for her personality hovers over us. We know that we have

been in the presence of a humanist who respects the spiritual and intellectual possibilities of man; a liberal who hates all authoritarian and totalitarian straitjackets; and a democrat who is devoted to the ideals of justice, freedom, and human happiness for all people.

ISIDORE STARR

Brooklyn Technical High School

THE WORLD IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY. By Geoffrey Bruun. Boston, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Company, 1952. Revised ed. 799 p. \$5.50.

Some day an interpretative history of American college textbooks in the field of European history will be written, and inevitably one of the outstanding figures in the volume will be Geoffrey Bruun. There are at least two major reasons for this. First, Mr. Bruun ranks among the most gifted writers in the American historical profession; in fact, his feeling for language is so impressive that volume after volume of his can be studied by undergraduates and teachers not only for its content but for its model prose. Secondly, Mr. Bruun is the relatively rare kind of scholar who finds time not only to write but to read. Amazingly well-versed in the literature of modern European history, he has done much by his example to spread the ideas that textbooks should not simply follow other textbooks, that they should be kept up to date chronologically, and that they should incorporate the results of the latest scholarship embodied in monographs and learned journals. It goes without saying that to hold such ideas in the field of modern European history is unbelievably difficult in view of the vast quantity of new books and articles that must be read and absorbed each year.

Yet this is not all. Some time ago Mr. Bruun came to the valid conclusion that the history of twentieth-century Europe makes little sense except in the context of world history. And so he departed from the European field in which he was trained and immersed himself in the history of the Americas and the Asiatic and Pacific areas. The book that emerged was published in 1952; it was well received; and now it appears in a revised edition which is certain to arouse equal enthusiasm. Suggestive, thoughtful, filled with humility and humaneness, excellently organized, admirably written, and well equipped with maps, illustrations, and graphs, the volume is ideal for the teacher who believes that his students need to understand the contemporary world if they are to understand contemporary Europe. Indeed, when

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the historian of American college textbooks in the field of European history evaluates Mr. Bruun's contributions, he may well conclude that *The World in the Twentieth Century* should be especially singled out for praise because of the courage that the writing of world history requires in an age of intense and absurd academic specialization.

HERMAN AUSUBEL

Columbia University

FOREIGN POLICIES OF THE UNITED STATES. By Hollis W. Barber. New York: The Dryden Press, 1953. 614 p. \$5.25.

Dr. Barber, who is on the staff of the University of Illinois' Chicago Undergraduate Division, has written a very readable survey of our foreign policies, usable as a college textbook. If he has a *leit-motif*, it is that the United States has rapidly and too unconsciously become the dominant world power and must now face the responsibility, cost, envy and even hostility which that position involves.

The book has six parts, dealing respectively with the basic concepts and methods of our

foreign policy; the three geographic regions of Europe, the Western Hemisphere, and the Far East; the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies; and a brief summary of our position.

In addition to its soundness and readability, the book seems to have three outstanding merits. First, it emphasizes our *present* foreign policies, tracing their origin and the reasons for their development. This is particularly evident in the treatment of our relations with Europe from the days of "isolationism and neutrality" to the present rigors of "the cold war."

A second virtue is to be found in the separate chapter on Canada. Too often, that neighbor has been treated as a part of our hemisphere policy (which is an unfortunate distortion of fact), or as a child of the British Empire. In contrast, Professor Barber suggests that Canada is the vital third side of our British-United States North Atlantic triangle. He might well have sounded that note longer and more loudly.

Finally, the United Nations agencies are given their true importance for the present and the future by occupying a full third of the volume. Certainly the Korean War should have driven home to us the point that our foreign policy is

being increasingly implemented through the organs of this international government.

Perhaps the reviewer may be permitted to mention also three shortcomings of the book. Most serious is the neglect of our policy toward some important nations, particularly in Asia and the Pacific. Except for the two chapters on China and Japan, Asia is dealt with only incidentally—for instance, in such Security Council cases as those of the Korean War, Indonesian independence and the Kashmir and Iranian disputes. Also, "the cold war" is treated almost exclusively in terms of Europe, which is scarcely realistic in these days of the Korean and Indo-Chinese wars, our large aid programs in India and Pakistan, and our vital political and economic activities all around the rim of the Soviet world.

Africa seems to be even more neglected by Professor Barber than is Asia, though the former may well seem to be less vital to us at present.

Finally, the author sometimes seems too much concerned with the trees, rather than the forest, of our foreign policies. Using again the Canadian case, we are given a fine summary of such vital United States-Canadian problems as past wars and treaties, the development of mutual defense against the Axis, closer trade relations and the St. Lawrence Seaway plan. But there is insufficient emphasis on the full significance of our northern neighbor, whether in terms of our joint anti-Russian defenses or of the great economic and financial interdependence which has been achieved.

In grading Professor Barber's work, we might give him a "high B," while adding the comment: "Some vital regions are slighted, and sometimes the details obscure the generalizations."

RICHARD M. PERDEW

TWELVE CITIZENS OF THE WORLD. By Leonard Kenworthy. Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1953. 286 p. \$3.50.

In this stimulating book the author has selected twelve characters from eleven countries who can be called citizens of the world. They represent various vocations and classes. Included among them are Ralph Bunche, Sun Yat-Sen, Pierre Ceresole, Mahatma Gandhi, Fridtjof Nansen, Albert Schweitzer, Eleanor Roosevelt, and Domingo Sarmiento. Some of those selected may not be too well known, but all have certain things in common. They thought of people irrespective of race, color, class, or religion. They were interested in building a more just world society

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and each was prepared to make great sacrifices to attain this objective. They found genuine freedom in working for those goals which included all mankind, and finally, they had those elements of real greatness which mankind has always admired.

This book is valuable because it furnishes excellent materials for classes studying international relations; it makes clear the fact that the development of world citizenship is a slow and complex process; it emphasizes the great importance of a constructive approach to the problem of developing a world community; and it reminds us again that no systems, programs or ideologies, but people are the basis of a world community.

The characters selected may well "serve as symbols for the world community which we are trying to create." The illustrations add much to the value of the book. The stories are carefully written and make stimulating reading. The excellence of this collection of biographies emphasizes the importance of selecting materials in our texts which are designed to break down international barriers. Of that kind of material there is not nearly enough. It also underscores the necessity of having teachers who are not only well trained, but who are also sensitive to the problems of the new world order.

Dr. Kenworthy's interest and experience in the field of international education make this a significant book which many social studies teachers will want to use.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School

THE STORY OF PEOPLE: ANTHROPOLOGY FOR YOUNG PEOPLE. By May Edel. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1953. vii + 197 p. \$3.00.

The Story of People is an excellent introduction to anthropology for junior and senior high school pupils. The author is herself an anthropologist and knows how to write for young people, simply and with many concrete examples, yet without any hint of condescension. Pen and ink sketches by Herbert Danska point up the book without taking the center of the stage away from the textual materials.

The book opens with the story of Franz Boas and his contribution to the social sciences through the field of anthropology. From there the author takes the reader to Africa, to Australia, and to the northwestern part of the United States to understand and appreciate the Indians, and to the habitat of the Eskimos. In describing these

and other groups of people, she weaves in many important concepts on the peoples of the world, their similarities and their differences.

Altogether this is an excellent volume, worth the attention of librarians, social studies teachers, parents, and primarily of secondary school pupils.

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

Brooklyn College

COLOR AND CULTURE IN SOUTH AFRICA. By Sheila Patterson. New York: Grove Press, 1953. 402 p. \$6.00.

This is a study of the status of the Cape Colored people within the social structure of South Africa. However, if the reader looks closely enough he will see that this study is a carbon copy of the Negro problem in our own country with few notable exceptions. The beginning chapters are concerned with an approach to this study and of the origin and early history of the various peoples who compose the "Cape Colored" population. Later chapters deal with patterns of differentiation and discrimination. Here Mrs. Patterson exposes the extent that the *apartheid* policy has frustrated and thwarted the attempts of this minority group in their efforts to attain social, economical, and educational respectability. It is interesting to note that at the present time in the United States the debatable "separate but equal" doctrine is uppermost in the minds of many. The author feels that doctrine will not work in South Africa nor in the United States for she says, "where there is segregation or dual provision of facilities, it is rare to find the facilities equal, even if a separate but equal policy like that of the United States Government be formally adopted."

Vague efforts are being made to provide a one-sided education for the natives. The schools for the European population in South Africa receive the best of teachers and textbooks but the lowly natives receive the lowest quality of instruction taught with the major aim of keeping them in their place—that place being as a cook, maid or handyman around the house, a digger in the mines, or a good field hand. Native competition in the skilled and professional strata of society is not encouraged. This book is fully documented, in fact, one finds thirty-seven references in chapter one which consists of thirteen pages and in chapter five there are two-hundred and eleven references scattered through twenty-four pages. This documentation is of inestimable value for students interested in the socio-economy.



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conomic problems of the Negro minority group both in South Africa and in the United States. Shelia Patterson has written intelligently and unbiasedly on a very sensitive topic.

JAMES K. ANTHONY

Southern University
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

THE MODERN COMMUNITY SCHOOL. Edited by Edward G. Olsen. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953. 246 p. \$2.50.

While even its most avid advocates admit that the "community school"—in the special definition now given to the term—cannot be built in just any community, it is, none-the-less, stimulating to read about the ones which have developed in some communities and the ones which are visualized for others.

Prepared by the Committee on the Community School of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, this book attempts to give—and it succeeds rather well in so doing—a picture of the community school idea, some examples of current best practice, and a "value-frame" of reference for use by those who would make our schools more educationally sound and more suited to the democratic ideal.

Its three parts have been prepared by committees working under Samuel Everett, of The City College of New York, Kate Wofford, of the University of Florida, and Ralph Spence, of Teachers College, Columbia University. Part I, called *The Schools We Need*, presents three imaginative portrayals of community education as it may be in the 1960's. Part II, *These Schools Are Moving Ahead*, is a report on actual techniques and procedures which are already being used in some school programs. Part III, *Educating for Dynamic Democracy*, considers the community school concept and sets forth factors which can help make all schools "community schools."

Under this concept of the community school, the campus is considered to be the community—local, national, and world—in which the school operates. The function of the school is to provide for the real educational needs of every child, youth, and adult in this community as well as to work for the improvement of the level of living of the community. In order to do this, the school itself must operate as an ideal democratic community and what is learned verbally in school must be related to what actually goes on in the outside community. All, within and without the

school, attack community problems in an effort to improve the quality of their common living.

The book is well-organized and interestingly written (although some of the more staid members of our profession may find its frequent use of such phrases as "shared judgment," "periphery of progress," and "dynamic meaning" a little annoying). While the schools it describes are—today, at least—more atypical than typical, every social science teacher who reads the book is likely to discover new ways for putting democratic education to work in his school and community. And, if predictions that within twenty-five years more adults will be enrolled in schools than children come true, this kind of school-community may well become the pattern for the future.

ROBERT BAYLESS NORRIS

Lehigh University
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

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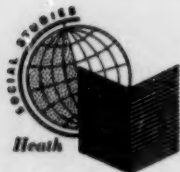
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